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GAZETTEER

OF THE

JHANG DISTRICT,

1883-84.



Compiled and Published under the authority of the Punjab Government.



Tahore:

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PREFACE.

The period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the Gazetteer of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from district officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the Gazetteer of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft Gazetteer compiled between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by district officers; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilised. Of the present volume, Section A of Cap. V (General Administration), and the whole of Cap. VI (Towns), have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner; Section A of Cap. III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report; while here and there, and especially in the matter of ancient history, passages have been extracted from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to. But with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost if not quite verbally, from Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report of the district.

The draft edition of this Gazetteer has been revised by Colonel Harcourt, Major Bartholomew, and Mr. Steedman. The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been fixed throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of transliteration. The final edition, though completely compiled by the Editor, has been passed through the press by Mr. Stack.

THE EDITOR.



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77,616

112,173

1,12,225

137,121

4,08,420 4,91,299

:

Average annual Land Revenue (1877 to 1881)* Average annual gross revenue (1877 to 1881)†

:

Sikhs (1881) ... Jains (1881) ... Musalmans (1881)

326,910

367

693

2,417

3,47,7

:

	ro		Shorkot,	1,220	186	877	62	138	9.6	L 174	95,342	90,721	4,621	79	75	17,355
	4	DETAIL OF TABSILS.	Chiniot.	9,979	194	1,493	101	132	13.0	. 254	128,241	117,510	10,731	09	55	15,369
FISTICS.	ee	A	Jhang,	2,365	263	1,569	139	504	10.2	333	171,713	150,084	21,629	23	1 9	32,168
Table No. I, shov g LEADING STATISTICS.	67		District.	6,007 ‡	643	3,939	319	474	10.5	192	395,296	358,315	36,981	69	63	64,892
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ole No. I,					÷	:	:	50 1881)	÷	(1881)	÷	:	:	:	:	:
Tab	1		DETAILS.	Total square miles (1881)	Cultivated square miles (1878)	Culturable square miles (1878)	Irrigated square miles (1878)	Average square miles under crops (1877 to 1881)	Annual rainfall in inches (1866 to 1882)	Number of inhabited towns and villages (1881)	Total population (1881)	Rural population (1881)	Urban population (1881)	Total population per square mile (1881)	Rural population per square mile (1881)	Hindus (1881)

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CHAPTER T.

DISTRICT. THE

SECTION A.—DESCRIPTIVE

The Jhang district is the northernmost of the four districts of the Mooltan division, and lies between north latitude 30° 35' and 32° 4', and east longitude 71° 39' and 73° 38'. It is in shape triangular, with its apex to the south-west and its base to the north-east. The acute angle of the apex is contained tween the districts of Muzaffargarh and Dera Ismáil Khán, and Li base line marches with Shahpur and Gujranwala. The southtern side is bounded for the greater part of its length by the Tntgomery district. The remaining portion adjoins Mooltan and zaffargarh. The north-western side, which is more irregular in pection than the south-eastern, is bounded by the Dera Ismail án and Sháhpur districts. The length of a line drawn from the resection point of the base to the apex where the three districts et, is about 124 miles; while another drawn at right angles to

AREA IN Tahsíl. Square miles. Acres. 1,453,822 2.271.60 ainiot 1,513,842 2,365.37 hang orkot 1,220 34 781,017 iver Chenáb, 76,005 Jhelam, 17,582 150.12 96,076 2,489 Rávi ... TOTAL 3,844,757 6,007.43

i

the above, through Kot Isa Sháh, Khíwa and Samundri, is a little under 70 miles in length. From the apex to the north-east and north-west base angles, the distances are respectively 152 and 124 miles. The area of the district is given in the margin.

The district is divided into three tahsils by two lines running light across the district parallel to the base. The north-castern lortion so cut off constitutes the tahsil of Chiniot, the small triangle lying to the south-west that of Shorkot, and the central portion of the district that of Jhang. The uplands of the district are for the most part Government waste, and not included in any village boundary; indeed only some 40 per cent. of the total area is The remaining 60 per cent. is inhabited only by wild pastoral tribes whose flocks graze at large over the wide-spread plains, while their habitations are mere temporary hamlets of

thatched huts, to-day occupied and to-morrow deserted.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. General description.

luc

Chapter I. A. Descriptive. General description. souls, viz.:-

Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several talissis into which it is divided are given in Table No. I as a The district contains two towns of more than 10,000 frontispiece.

> Maghiána 12,574 10,731 Chiniot

The administrative head-quarters are situated at Maghiana, distant only some three miles from the town of Jhang, from which the district takes its name.

Jhang stands fourth in order of area, and twenty-sixth in

Town.	N. Latitude.	E. Longitude.	Feet above sea-level.
Jhang (Maghiána) Chiniot Shorkot	31° 16′ 31° 44′ 30° 50′	72° 22′ 73° 1′ 72° 7′	831

order of population, among the 32 districts of the Province. comprising 5.35 per cent. of the total area, 2:10 per cent. of the total population, and 1.52 per cent. of the urban population, of British terriforv. The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown in the margin.

Physical formation,

The district is traversed by two rivers, the Chenáb and Jhelam. The Chenáb enters the district a little west of bi-section point of the base line, and after receiving the waters of the Jhelam, leaves the district about 12 miles east of the district ap ex. The course of the Chenáb is steadily to the south-west, and the river consequently divides the district into two very nearly equal portions. The Jhelam enters the district at a point about 56 miles distant, and very nearly due west from where the Chenáb fir st touches the Jhang border. This river flows in a course nearly due south, and is absorbed into the Chenab 40 miles below where it leaves the Shahpur district. The tract between the two rivers is a lesser triangle within the greater of the district boundar Physically the formation of the district is that of an old alluvid flat, the remains of which are found in the high plateaux of th Sándal Bár, the Kirána Bár, and the Thal, traversed by th river valleys of the Chenáb and the Jhelam. The Sándal Bál is situate to the east of the Chenáb, the Kirána Bár between the Chenáb and the Jhelam, and the Thal west of the Jhelam. Between the Bár and the Thal uplands, and the lowlands or Hithár annually flooded by the rivers, there is an intermediate tract called the Utar, and there can be little doubt but that all three represent different ages of geological formation. The Bars and Thal are the oldest formations, and even they are of distinctly alluvial origin. These tracts are probably identical, and geologically synchronous with the great plain of the Punjab made up of the various Doabs, each consisting of an elevated tract sloping down to the river valleys on either side.

The Sandal Bar.

In the northern portion of the district, the Sándal Bár rises abruptly from the Utar, and the summit of the dividing ledge is

^{*}Approximate.

rom 10 to 30 feet above the plain below. From the Gujránwála porder to the village of Pabbarwála, the ledge (Nakka, Dhaya, Oáh) runs near and parallel to the river, and forms the boundary between the lands included in villages and the Government waste. South of Pabbarwála the ledge runs at some distance from the river into the Government waste, and does not any longer form a quasi boundary between private property and that of the State. As one travels south, the bank imperceptibly disappears, until at length it is impossible to say where the Bár ends or where begins. There is, however, a gradual rise in the country from the river to the Bar, evidenced by the increasing depth to water as the river recedes, and also by the direction of the surface drainage. The whole of the vast extent of country included within this Bár is, with a few trifling exceptions, the property of Government. The private rights that are now enjoyed by the sinkers of wells on leases from Government will be separately noticed. There are no village estates in this tract. The only cultivation that exists is attached to wells that are held under lease from Government; or, in a year of good rainfall, patches of rain cultivation will be found scattered sparsely here and there. In point of soil the northern portion of the Bár is generally good. There is a marked and obvious deterioration to the south. The most general distinction between good and bad land is that between sweet and sour. No grass grows kindly on kallar, and practically the quality of the Bár soil depends solely upon its power of producing pasturage. Among the sweet soils it is noticeable that a good loam with a slight sprinkling of sand on the top, as is often seen in the Bar, makes the best grass The reason is at once apparent. When the first summer rains fall, the ground has been parched and burnt by the heats of May and June into the consistency of iron. Last year's grass has been grazed down to the roots, and the surface is almost perfectly bare. Besides the natural power of absorption possessed by the soil, there is nothing to prevent the rain as it falls from draining away into the nearest depression. Where the soil is sandy and friable, the rain sinks where it falls; but on clayey lands it does not penetrate far into the soil, and is either carried away by surface drainage or evaporated by a burning sun. Not only is the soil poorer and kallar plains more frequent in the southern portion of the Bár, but even the better class of grasses, such as Dháman, are hardly ever found. Chlembar is about the only good grass that can be got to grow on kallar. The other natural productions of the Bár are the pílú, the jand, the phog, and the karil, with here and there a few faráshes growing where surface drainage collects, and various salsolaceous plants. The khár lání, from which sajjí is made, is rarely found north of the road from Jhang to Ghapni. There are a few small hills near and between Sángla and Sháhkot in the north of the Bár.

The Kirána Bár, a portion of the Chaj Doáb, takes its name from the Kirána hills found here. These hills are not, as generally supposed, and as stated by Mr. Monckton, outliers of the Salt Range. The following description is taken from Medlicott and Blanford's Manual of Geology:—"Far to the north-west of the

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

The Sándal Bár.

The Kirana Bar.

Chapter I, A, Descriptive. The Kirána Bár.

"Hissár country some hills occur on both sides of the Chenáb att "Chiniot and Kirána. These hills are only 40 miles distant from the Salt Range, but the rocks are totally different from any that occur there, and correspond well with the character of the transition rocks of the Arvali series. They consist of strong quartzites with associated clay slates, forming steep ridges, with a north-east to south-west strike. The highest summit is stated by Doctor "Fleming to be 957 feet above the plain. The oldest rocks of the Salt Range are probably very much younger than the "strata of Kirána." The rocks at Sháhkot and Sángla belong to the same formation as the Kirána hills. Just above Chiniot the Chenáb runs most picturesquely through a couple of gorges in these hills.

The lands of the Kirána Bár to the south and east of the hole are of superb quality. After slight showers of rain, the where country is carpeted with grass. Better rain crops are grown holes, than in the Sándal Bár. To the west of Kirána and westwaroil until the villages near the Jhelam are reached, the Bár Bár deteriorates, and more and more kullar is found. The Kirána Idal is demarcated from the Utár by the same fall or slope as the Sánges Bár. Generally this ledge forms the boundary between the villagend and the Government waste. But few villages possess lands beyir is the high bank, or Nakka, as it is called. The flora of this Bá the much the same as that of the Sándal. Sajjí is produced to lear south-west of Kirána. Some peculiar grasses grow on and the hills, that are held to be of most excellent quality.

The Thal.

ble The strip of Thal attached to this district is of inconsiderally area, 246,554 acres. To the north the strip is exceeding ng narrow, but it widens out considerably to the south of the Jhaigh and Dera Ismáil Khán road. The Thal apparently is a bi or plateau similar to the Bárs, with this difference, that it is more he less completely covered with hills and dunes of blown sand. Ind soil below the sand is good enough, but it only crops out here ane. there. Where the Jhelam enters the district it runs alongside and is cutting away the high bank of the Thal. Thence, dult west as far as the Indus Kachhi, there is nothing but the most sterile waste of monotonously parallel sand dunes. In the Thal. attached to the Jhang district there is little or no cultivation The distance to water is so great as to render well farming much less profitable than in the portions of the Thal nearer to the Indus. The aspect of this tract is dreary in the extreme. Rolling sand hills, running in an almost uniform direction, alternating with hollows of fairly good soil studded with pilú bushes, are the only features of a landscape unsurpassed for its monotony. one prevailing tint of the soil is a light reddish-brown, which after! rain becomes rufous. The only greenery is that of the pilú bushes and trees. There is no land or land. Here and there phog and karil bushes are seen, but the distinctive feature of the Jhang Thal is the pili. The effect of the Thal is one of unrelieved depression. The Bar has a directly contrary influence. Grass grows luxuriantly in the Thal after heavy rain, but it is seldom seen in this happy state.

The tract intermediate between the uplands of the Bár and l and the lowlands (Hithár) of the river valleys presents consiable variety. This tract is the more interesting, in that it stains the villages that pay the land revenue of the district. The The tracts between aracteristics of the tracts intermediate between the Sándal Bár d the Chenáb, the Kirána Bár and the Chenáb, the Kirána Bár d the Jhelam, and the Thal and the Jhelam and Jhelam-Chenáb. e sufficiently strongly marked to render separate descriptions

cessary. The tract between the Chenáb and the Sándal Bár extends om the borders of Gujránwála to the villages on the Rávi. It rries in width from four to sixteen miles, but the average distance om the river to the Government Bár is usually eight miles. Jigns of its fluvial formation are to be seen everywhere. As in the par. so in this tract, the gradual deterioration as one goes south s distinct and obvious. From Guiránwála to the boundary of the I hang tahsil, the difference is not so clearly marked; but thence outhwards, the inferior quality of the soil, the infrequency of good grass-land, the constant occurrence of kallar flats, at once strike the observer. Mr. Monckton writes :- "The Jhang district may " be described in general terms as a region destitute of living brooks "and shady groves, and with the exception of the rivers Jhelam and "Chenáb, and the fringes of cultivation on their banks, the country "is a dry waterless tract, covered with a sparse jangal of bushy "trees. The march from Khiwa to within a mile of Jhang stands "probably unrivalled in the world for its combination of the most "disagreeable features a landscape is capable of affording." best way to describe this tract and its varying character is to take three sections from the river to the Bár, one for each tahsíl. The starting point will be the bank of the Utar, beyond which the river floods have been never known to pass. In Chiniot, with an unimportant break here and there, this bank is bordered by a fringe of well cultivation that constitutes the prettiest and most fertile portion of the tahsil. Each well is bowered in a cluster of trees. generally kikars and shishams. Near the bank the cultivation is almost continuous, and there is hardly any patch of waste. Passing onwards the wells open out, and the intervening patches of waste become more frequent. These wells too are good in quality, and some discretion has been exercised in selecting their sites. Beyond these wells comes a stretch of waste land, where the cattle of the village graze while at home. The soil varies. Depressions with a clayey bottom, uplands of light loam, sandy tracts, with here and there a sand-hill, and patches of kallar, continually alternate. Then come the wells of the villages beyond the riverain estates, and beyond them again are the villages lying under the Bár. The wells are scattered, and each is a small hamlet in itself. The only wells whose cultivated lands adjoin are, as a rule, round the village, if there is a village. The waste between the wells is of good

quality, and produces, with the assistance of wonderfully little rain, first-rate crops of grass. Next come the villages under the Bar. Here the distance to water is great, and without rain, or the assistance of surface drainage, they do but poorly. Consequently the

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Descriptive.

the Bars and Thal and the rivers.

Between the Sandal Bár and the Chenab Hithar lands.

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Between the Sándal Bár and the Chenáb Hithár lands. wells are found in lines parallel with the bank of the Bar, and the zamindars use every contrivance to conduct on to these lands the silt-charged water that rushes down from the Bár uplands after rain. The aspect of this country and its wells is, as may be easily supposed, subject to the greatest changes. In seasons of good rainfall, no wells or tracts look so bright and smiling. In seasons of drought, a more desolate country and wells more poverty-stricken in appearance cannot well be imagined. The areas of the wells are lying untilled, parched, and hardened by a relentless sun. The surrounding waste lands afford not one blade of grass. Everything presents a dull brown scorched appearance. In Jhang the fringe of well cultivation along the flood bank betrays by its many breaks and its irregularity in breadth, that the soil is not what it is in Chiniot. Nor are the wells in themselves so prosperous in look as those lying farther north. The farming is responsible for this. There is not any very great difference in the soil where the wells are placed. Where there are no wells, the Utar plain above the river lands generally consists of a kallar flat, its uniformity broken here and there by small mounds that have collected and are now forming round the stunted karir or jand bushes. There is also a thick growth of láná or lání, or of both intermixed. The wells beyond are more scattered, as good land is scarce. No use is made of surface drainage. The wells and country are uninviting. There are few trees round the wells. There is but little grass in the waste. Láná is the only plant that really seems to enjoy the pear Khár is found in the south of the tahsíl. It seem be a plant somewhat capricious in its choice of locality. The up ble part of Shorkot is very similar to the lower portion of Jhan Kallar, láná, lúní, and khár are more diffused, and good grass la is less common. Traces of river action are here more numero Depressions and tracts covered with sand dunes are met with might frequently. Trees there are none, except here and there, near son depression in which water collects during the rains. To the soul the Chenáb widens out, and the Utár tract becomes very narrov and the soil in parts reaches a climax of sourcess. Between the Utar land and the tract that is ordinarily flooded by the Chenad comes a strip of country peculiar to the southern half of Shorkot It is evidently a recent river formation. The soil is light and sandy. Water is very near the surface; and where not cultivated the ground is covered with a dense growth of sar grass.

Between the Kirána Bár and the Chenáb Hithár.

The country on the right bank of the Chenáb, from the river to the high bank of the Bár, is very similar in character to that on the other side. Near the river there is the same band of well cultivation, gradually widening out to the scattered wells and large stretches of waste of the tract adjoining the Bár. The high bank of the Bár dies away a little distance east of the boundary between the Chiniot and the Jhang tahsíls, opposite the village of Kot Mohla. To the portion of the Utár lying between this ridge and the Chenáb, the description of the country cis-Chenáb may be unreservedly applied. Further west the aspect of the country, here called the Sháh Jíwana taalluká, changes. Speaking generally, the face of the country is either half concealed by a sparse growth



grass, or appears revealed in all the ugliness of a kallar plain. Monckton writes of this tract :- "Here the soil is singularly terile: for miles one may ride over tracts impregnated with saltpetre, and producing only dirty coarse grass, unfit for any use- Between the Kirána ful purpose." The wells, as might be expected in a tract of this lescription, are found scattered here and there over the face of the country. There are a few well-to-do villages, but most are poor, adly farmed, and owned by extravagant thriftless Sayads. This inhospitable waste does not end until the Jhelam villages are gached. The lower part of the triangle contained between the to rivers is termed in common parlance the Vichanh. Towards the apex of the triangle the country may be described as a dorsal ridge, covered with efflorescent saltpetre, between the fertile lowlying alluvial lands of the two rivers. This back-bone of extra sour soil extends as far as Kádirpur Bakhsha, and its continuity suffers but very few and very slight breaks. The country round Kot Isa Sháh, between the Jhelam and the tongue of Bár that runs down southwards, is probably the most fertile and most picturesque in the district. The soil is good, agriculture flourishes, and trees are abundant for some distance away from the river. Beyond comes another infertile tract, containing much kallar, and then the Bar is reached. Here there is no high ridge well defined. The expanse of kallar is broken in some parts by curiously fertile patches. Such an one is the village of Bhairo, bounded on the east by the Bár, and on the west by a kallar plain that for extent and nakedness is unequalled.

The tract between the Thal and the Jhelam is called the Kachhi. Kachbi is also the name of the alluvial lands of the Indus valley, as distinct from the Thal and Damán. The word means a country that is contained within some strongly marked boundary, here the Thal. It is distinct from and must not be confounded with the Urdú kachcha—(unripe, unformed). To the north the Jhelam is now flowing immediately under the Thal, and the higher portion of the Kachhi, i. e., that out of reach of the Jhelam and Chenab floods, does not start fairly until the village of Sherowana is reached. Thence, as far as the Muzaffargarh boundary, the tract of Kachhi runs unbroken. This strip is, on an average, about nine miles As is the case with the whole of the district, the soil gradually deteriorates to the south, and becomes worse on the Muzaffargarh border. Here the only cultivation to be found, except a well or two, lies immediately under the Thal bank in a depression. The wells are of a fairly prosperous appearance. A stitle talla grass, and a good deal of sar, grow in and near the depression. Between the Thal and the river the country is almost desolate. Rolling sand dunes, on which a few scant patches of sar grass only thrive, flat plains of the hardest and most unfruitful clay, strips glistening with the salt efflorescene, and patches of black kallar, locally known as bishi—(poisonous), from its deadly effect on all vegetable life, alternate in dreary succession. Vegetation is represented by a few starved karir bushes and lani plants. Northwards there is a decided improvement in the soil. Notably there is very much less kallar. Near the river the well cultivation

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Bár and the Chenáb Hithár.

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Between the Thal and the Jhelam and Jhelam-Chenab Hithar.

is dense, the country is well wooded, and agriculture flourishes. Towards the Thal cultivation becomes sparser. The wells are found in lines, the direction being determined by the presence of some depression, into which the surface drainage of the country finds its The soil is more fertile and cooler than the higher-lying lands. The depression under the Thal here again is studded with wells. The soil is a good loam of a reddish tint. Near the river karír is the predominant scrub, while near the Thal the jál bushes are so numerous and so large as to form a stunted forest. separate distribution of these two shrubs is very marked. the two zones meet they are found intermixed; but near the Thal hardly a karír, and in the river villages hardly a pílú, will be found. The absence of grass is the distinguishing feature of the Kachhi. In the cold weather grass sufficient to feed half a dozen horses certainly could not be procured, and probably does not exist. bareness of the surface is most remarkable. The soil is clayey. Water does not penetrate, but drains away into some depression, where again, when the water is evaporated, the salts left behind prevent the growth of any vegetation. There is very little uncultivated land anywhere in the Kachhi that is free from the kallar taint.

The Upper Chenab valley.

Mr. Monckton in a few happy sentences gives a description of the Chenáb that cannot be improved upon:—"The Che "is a broad shallow stream, with a sluggish current and a lie "tious course. Its deposits are sandy, but its flood is exten-"and from the loose texture of the soil on its banks the mois "penetrates far inland." The above description was made v reference to the upper Chenáb in tahsíl Chiniot. Of the lov Chenáb, Mr. Monckton wrote:—"The country on the banks "the Chenáb is generally low and moist. The river flood exte "in many places as much as three and four miles inland at its high." "rise." The great difference in the character of the Chenáb abo and below its junction with the Jhelam has never been thorough recognised. Above the Trimmu ferry the Chenab is confined within well-marked banks, over which its waters rarely, and on, at a few known points, ever spill. The country between the twi containing banks varies considerably in width. Where the river has cut away a larger slice of the Utár, the banks become necessarily farther apart. The width and depth of the river bed had naturally an important effect on the extent and height of the floods. Often do the zamíndárs complain that the bed is far too big Where the banks are near and the real bed of the river is not excessive in width, the greater portion of the lands between will be flooded annually. Where the distance from bank to bank is considerable, and the river channel runs in a tortuous course through the centre, the action of the floods becomes uncertain. places the belá land between the river and the high bank is only naturally inundated when the set of the stream is directly towards When the course of the river is less favourable, the needful supply of flood water is obtained by throwing embankments across the nálahs by which such lands are invariably intersected, and thereby raising the water level. The deposits of the upper Chenáb

The state of the s

are usually very sandy. The zamíndárs have a saying that "it takes gold and gives copper," apropos of the difference between the land carried away and that thrown up. The upper Chenáb deposits require successive deposits of silt before they become fit for cultivation. The inundations of the Chenáb appear to be fairly regular. Mr. Cust's picture of "wells, villages and culturable area being carried away by a merciless torrent" is an exaggerated and unfavourable representation of the Chenáb. It does possess enormous powers of erosion, but, except under particular circumstances, it takes years to cut away a village.

From the point of junction with the Jhelam the breadth annually inundated begins to expand, until in the lower portion of the Shorkot tahsil, near Ahmadpur and Jalalpur, the river spreads out almost in fan shape, and its water flows far inland. Large islands, belás or bindís as they are called, form more frequently than to the north. The Dingi belá opposite Ahmadpur has already a length of 8 miles, and exhibits signs of further growth to the south. The aspect of the sailáb lands adjoining the river is much the same on the lower and upper Chenáb. Along the bank is found a dense belt of dark lai (Jhái or pilchhi) jangal, often so thick and strong that a horse could with difficulty pass through. This is intersected by numerous channels of the river, dry during the greater portion of the cold weather, but filling with any slight rise in the river. There is but little cultivation, and what there is consists of patches of wheat, massar, peas, or gram scattered here and there amongst the underwood. The soil is generally good, and has but recently accreted. Still its quality varies greatly. In one place the accretion has taken place only lately, and more silt must be deposited before the soil can be termed good. In another spot the soil was formed long ago; but it is still little better than a sand bank covered with a thin layer of clay, sometimes hardly more than a mere film, and here and there the sand itself crops out. Beyond this strip of jangal and cultivation intermixed, and between it and the bank which bounds the inundations, come the cultivated lands of the alluvial tract. The soil varies from stiff clay to sand, but is generally a good light loam, easilyworked and retentive of moisture. Rabi crops are chiefly grown, or the higher and lighter soils being devoted to the production of autumn crops. Below Shorkot the bank of the Utar is either wanting, or else is situate at some distance from the stream. Instead of finding a comparatively narrow strip of cultivation between the new deposits and the Utár bank, one is at once struck by the absence of any high land beyond which no flood ever The country is traversed by numerous channels that carry the flood water far inland. There are broad expanses of rich sailab land near the river; but these do not extend far. Beyond, high-lying strips and patches of waste land of a sandy texture, covered with a thick growth of sar grass, become common. The cultivated lands are found in between, wherever there is a depression that is reached by the flood water. As the river recedes, wells become more numerous. Near it there are but few. In February or March the view of this cis-Chenáb portion of the district from an

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The upper Chenáb valley.

The lower Chenáb valley.

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valley.

old mound or eminence has a peaceful beauty peculiar to itself. sea of yellow grass rippling in the breeze, edged on the west by a silver ribbon of river, are the features that first strike the eye. Dotted over the surface are dark clumps of trees round the wells, and here and there a few groves of date palms. Towards the river long stretches of green wheat are to be seen, while nearer in the cultivation is hidden from view, or only peeps out near a well or where a piece of sailab cultivation larger than usual is Beyond the river rise dark against the horizon the trees growing round villages that fringe the further bank. Trans-Chenab from the junction of the rivers to Ahmadpur, the sailáb lands are bounded by a high bank separating them from the Kachhi tract described above. At Ahmadpur the level of the country seems to sink, the bank to disappear, and the flood water of the river passing to the west of Ahmadpur finds its way by depressions and canals into the Kándíwál lake (jhíl) lying immediately under the high wall of the Thal.

The Jhelam valley.

The Jhelam has a course of about 45 miles in length from the point where it first touches the Jhang district down to its point of junction with the Chenáb, the Domel as it is called. As compared with the Chenáb, the Jhelum contains a much smaller volume of water, and flows in a much more confined channel. The area subject to inundation from the Jhelam is much less extensive, though in flood season the rise in the river must be considerably higher than that of the Chenáb. The erosive action of the Jhelam is quite as powerful as that of the Chenáb, but its deposits are far richer in argillaceous matter. There is more mud and less sand. A deposit of Jhelam silt often bears a good crop of coarse rice the first year it is formed. The country on the banks of the Jhelam is fertile, well wooded, densely cultivated, and supports a larger population than any other portion of the district. There is hardly any waste land. The Jhelam being a narrow stream, islands (belás or bindís) are seldom met with.

The Ravi valley.

The Rávi, which is almost everywhere fordable, first touches the district at a point only 11 miles from where it falls into the Chenáb, but the length of its singularly tortuous course between these two points must be nearly double that distance. Judging from the description of the Ravi given by Mr. Purser in the Montgomer Settlement Report, the character of the lower Rávi varies consider ably from that of the upper. On the Jhang side of the river th Ravi sailab lands are separated by a very high bank from the land of the Utár. The outline of this bank is most irregular in it twists and turns, carved out as it has been by the action of this most erratic river. Below this bank lies a considerable tract of be of a very uneven surface and quality, and intersected by numerous old channels of the Rávi. These are called Budh, or Dhan, and in the cold weather such of them as have not subsequently silted up and become dry, afford both water to the jhalars and excellent duck-At the end of one cold weather it is impossible to predict where the river will be at the beginning of the next, beyond that it will be below the Utar bank. Its course is the most capricious and inconstant of all the rivers of this district. Ordinarily it does

not, like the Chenáb, flood the whole of the sailába lands. extent and the locality of the floods depend solely upon the direction of the river. If it is flowing under the left bank, the chances are that the lands under the right bank will not get a drop of flood water, except the lowest-lying strips in the old channels of the river. The Rávi alluvial lands are composed of a stiff soil, very productive if it gets flood water, but hardly pervious, and but little benefited by percolation except where it is unusually sandy. The stream runs in a deep bed. The highland between the Ravi and the Chenáb is curiously similar to that between the Jhelam and Chenáb. The same bare unfruitful plain with a surface stratum of kallar efflorescence is found. The presence of much coarse dabh grass, a few patches of sar grass, and some infrequent lai bushes. give the Shorkot Vichanh a slightly more hospitable aspect. About two miles from the Rávi and close to the Mooltan border, a thick forest of jand is found. This forest extends some way into the Mooltan district. Only a small portion is included in Jhang. The ground appears to be nothing but kallar of the rankest nature, yet the jand grows with a luxuriance never seen elsewhere. The site is apparently a depression, for not only does water flow down from the Utar and collect here, but sometimes the flood water of the Rávi, spilling over the bank above Chícháwatni, flows across some fifty miles of country, and finds its way by here into the Chenáb. The Ravi side does not present that appearance of fertility that characterises the Jhelam valley and the alluvial lands of the Chenáb. The upland wells are extremely poor, and there is much kallar. The Hithar lands betray the uncertainty of the supply of flood water.

Irrigation works of modern date in Jhang compare but unfavourably with the remains of those of the past. The only canal now at work is one in Shorkot, called the Wakefield Wah. Its history is apparently this:-In 1872 Niámat Rái devised a scheme for cutting a canal from Buddhowána to Manga Afghánán. Mr. Wakefield approved of the plan, and by 1874 a canal sixteen miles long had been excavated at their own cost by the zamindars of the villages through which it passed. The canal has not been doing so well during the last few years. This is due partly to a change in the Chenab stream, but more so to lack of management. Annual clearances are effected under the supervision of the Tahsíldár, but proper distribution of the water there is none. The villages near the head not only take more than their share, but allow the water to run waste in a scandalous manner. There are a few other cuts from the river in various villages made to assist and guide the flow of the flood water inland, and they are welcome signs of the birth of some enterprise among the zamíndárs. These ditches are to be found at Basti Varyám and Jalálpur, Kakkúwála, Ahmadpur, Sultán Báhn, and Havelí Bahádarsháh in Shorkot. In Jhang there is one made by the Chelás of Wású Astána, and another started by Mr. Wakefield near Jhang that has never flowed since the first year. In Chiniot there are about the same number.

The old canals are three. In the Vichanh the remains of an old canal of considerable size are to be seen. Local tradition says

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Old canals.

that it was a portion of the Ráníwáh canal that leaves the Jhelam in the Bhera tahsíl of Sháhpur. Nothing is known as to when the canal was constructed. The story goes that it was the work of a rich banker of Bhera, whose daughter was married to a resident of one of the Jhang Vichanh villages. The daughter, when she reached her husband's home, complained of the scanty supply of water, and her father at once cut the canal to put an end to her trouble. Another version is that the daughter vowed that she would not marry the man to whom she was betrothed, unless she could get to his house by water without putting foot to the ground; so her father forthwith proceeded to excavate this canal. The remains of the canal opposite Kálirpur Bakhsha are perhaps in the best state of preservation, and show that it was a work of some magnitude, and aligned considerably above the level of the country. In the Shorkot tahsil the banks of an old canal that left the Chenáb a short distance east of Mírak Siál are still recognizable. The people have no tradition whatever as to its construction. The fact that the Chenáb must have been running at a very much higher level than now, and in a very different bed, before water could have been supplied to the canal, is the best evidence of its antiquity. The head of the canal takes off the old bed of the Chenáb lving between Mírak Siál and Káim Bharwána, into which now-a-days the water of the river in highest flood hardly penetrates. All vestiges of the canal are lost about a mile from the village of Shorkot. The third canal is that of Uch, constructed by Fakír Gul Imám. It leaves the river Jhelam close under Machhiwal, and tails off into Uch. It ceased to run about the end of the 18th century, after flowing some sixty years. There are also traces to be seen in the Bar of an old canal Nannanwa. concerning which little or nothing is known by the people.

Rainfall, temperature, and climate.

The climate of Jhang does not differ from that of the remainder of the southern Punjab. Mr. Blanford states that during June. July and August the highest mean temperature prevailing in any part of India is that of the comparatively rainless tract about Mooltan, Montgomery and Dera Ismáil Khán. The intensely Mot weather commences shortly after the 1st June. The kikar of ber trees lose all their leaves in the burning heat. There is generally a fall of rain by the 15th July. A hot wind bloom more or less steadily from the south and south-west during month of June, until the advent of the monsoon current is fall and then the winds are very variable. The nights are, if not con at least comfortable up to the last ten days of June, and then day and night are both equally intolerable. Jhang after general rain has a most pleasant climate. The thermometer falls, and there little or none of that close muggy atmosphere that characterise the rain in stations with a large rainfall and moist soil. Calms rare. If the rain ceases, as it sometimes does, or if the breaks long, the heat becomes again intense, and hot winds have be experienced in the latter part of July. There is always a chain August in this part of the Punjab. The nights and morning get cooler. If there is no rain in August and September, cooling proceeds very gradually, until the cold weather commended and pankhás are abandoned about the 10th October. With rain about the middle of September, the cold weather comes in much quicker. The cool bright days, the frosty nights, and the crisp fresh mornings of the cold weather of the Punjab proper, are to be found at Jhang as elsewhere. October and November are rainless. During the last week in December and in January and February rain usually falls. By the end of March the weather grows perceptibly warmer. April is hot and dry; May is hotter and drier. Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall

Year	.	Tenths of an inch.
1862-63		208
1563-64		185
1864-65	-	135
1865-66		117

registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year, from 1866-67 to 1882-83. The fall at head-quarters for the four preceding years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. IIIA and IIIB.

The district is a particularly healthy one. There is ordinarily but little fever. Cholera seldom appears, and never badly. The drinking water at Jhang, and generally along the banks of the Chenáb, is excellent. Goitre, however is prevalent in the neighbourhood of Chiniot and the tract lying to the north-east of that town. Tables Nos. XI, XIA, XIB and XLIV give annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district and for its towns during the last five years: while the birth and death-rates since 1868, so far as available, will be found at pages 42, 43 for the general population, and in Chapter VI under the heads of the several large towns of the district. Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes, and lepers as ascertained at the Census of 1881; while Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries since 1877.

SECTION B.-GEOLOGY, FAUNA AND FLORA.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the Province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medlicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published in extenso in the Provincial volume of the Gazetteer series, and also as a separate pamphlet. And the following discussion, taken from Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report, is of such an interesting character that it is inserted here:—

"It has always been to me a curious problem—the origin of this Thal sand. If there were any continuous stretches of sand hills on the left bank of the Jhelam, the question might be more easily understood, but there are not. I only know of one small portion of the Vichanh Bar where there are sand dunes, and this is due east of Kadirpur Bakhsha. To the east of the Chenab, below its junction with the

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Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Rainfall, temperature, and climate.

Disease.

Geology.

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Jhelam, there are no doubt sand hills here and there, such as are met with east of Gilmála, in Pírwála and elsewhere; but otherwise the tract in no way resembles the Thal. The sand hills of Gilmála and Pírwála seem to have most probably been formed from sand deposited in an old bed of the Chenáb that is found near. The remarks at pages 436-439 of the Manual of Indian Geology should be consulted for a further insight into the formation of deserts such as those found in Sind and Rájpútána, which do not apparently differ much from the Thal, except that there the direction of the parallel lines of sand hills is north-east and southwest, while, according to the Shahpur Settlement Report, p. 11, they here run north-west and south-east. Native traditions attribute the presence of the sand to the action of the strong south wind that prevails during the greater part of the year, in blowing up the sand of the Indus bed. The authors of the Manual write of the Rájpútána desert :- 'It appears difficult to believe that all the sand found in the desert can have been derived from the Indus.' The same difficulty occurs in respect of the Thal sand. 'The most probable theory appears to be that the Ran of Cutch, and the lower portion of the Indus valley, have been occupied by the sea in post-tertiary times, and that the sand of the desert was derived from the shore. The most sandy tracts, as has also been shown, are on the edge of the Indus valley * * * and these portions of the country were all probably situated on the coast.' 'It is probable that the central portion of the desert was land. whilst the Indus valley, the Ran (of Cutch) and the Lúní valley were occupied by sea.' The accumulation of sand in a desert region is evidently due to the low rainfall and the consequent absence of streams. the effect being intensified by the accumulation of sand and the porous nature of the resulting surface. In other parts of India, the sand blown from the river channels or the sea coast is either driven by the wind into other river channels, or is swept into them again by rain.*

"It is easy to follow these remarks in connection with the presence of sand in the upland of the Sind Saugor Doab, but what in the case of the Jhang district requires an explanation, is the comparative absence of sand in the two neighbouring Doabs between the Jhelam, Chenab and Ravi rivers, in fact the comparative absence of sand between the Thal, and the Bikanir desert on the east of the Sutlej. The alluvium of the Kirána and Sándal Bárs and that of the Sind Saugor Thal on which the sand dunes rest, are probably of the same age, though I speak with extreme diffidence; and if this is the case, why are there not the ame accumulations of sand? Did the sands of the Bíkanír desert and hose of the Thal once join, and have the Punjab rivers since cut their way through them, the uplands of the Bar having been first deposited and subsequently cut through at a later period? Where the Jhelam enters the district it runs alongside, and is cutting away the high bank of the Thal. Thence due west, as far as the Indus Kachhi, there is nothing but the most sterile waste of monotonously parallel sand dunes. the river, and with the exception of the few mounds of sand mentioned previously, a flat plain of stiffish soil, here and there lightening down t sandy loam, is traversed until the Chenáb is met. It seems possible to account for the absence of sand by the decreting action of the river on the hypothesis that the sands of the Bikanir desert and those of t Thal were in past ages continuous, and that the Chaj and Reck Doabs, lying as they do at a lower level, were subsequently deposited

^{*} Mr. Medlicott writes.—"These remarks, so far as they refer to sea, can no application to any Punjab ground. This sand is essentially recent; an partial distribution may, I think, be mainly attributed to the capricious action yet fully understood of the wind."

fluvial action that had first eroded and carried away the sands. however, gives a higher* position in the geological era to the Sind Saugor Doab than is allowed by the Indian geologists; and of course my suggestion is little else than a guess suggested by the levels, the lie of the country, and the identical character of the sand in the two deserts, separated from each other by the Punjab portion of the Indus drainage system."

There are no mines in the district. There are several quarries Mineral products. in the hills near Chiniot, where millstones, pestles and mortars, dabgars' and mochis' blocks, kneading boards, oil pans for lamps, &c., are made. There are no other metal or mineral products. There are no kankar beds in the district. The Kirána hills are stated to contain iron ore, but it has never been worked. Some freestone was quarried near Chiniot and sent to Lahore for use in some of the Government buildings.

Among the trees of the district the kikar (Acacia Arabica) is Trees. The kikar. the most common and the most useful. It grows most luxuriantly in the Hithar villages on both the rivers, but is found in greater quantities on the Jhelam and upper Chenáb than further south. Kikar wood is of excellent quality, and is used for almost every agricultural purpose. More especially it is almost invariably used for the horizontal and vertical wheels, the axle of the vertical wheels, and other portions of the machinery of a Persian-wheel. As a young tree, it is exposed to some danger from frost, but as it ages, cold has less effect. It grows wonderfully quickly, and this is the principal reason why zamindárs prefer it to the shisham (táhlí). A number of young kikurs will be found on almost every well scattered over the area attached, but the shishams will only be close round the well. The pods of the kikar and the loppings are eaten greedily by sheep and goats, and in years of drought the tree is hacked and pruned in a most unmerciful manner. The shade of the kikar is peculiarly harmful to vegetation. Nothing will grow under it. The bark is used for tanning and distilling spirits. The cypress-formed or Kábuli kíkar (Acacia cupressiformis) is also found scattered over the district; it is valued less than the kikar. The shisham or tahli (Dalbergia sissu) is found The Shisham. wherever there is cultivation, but is more abundant in the lowlands fringing the rivers than in the Utar. The tree does not do well until its roots get down to water, and this takes place much sooner in the tract near the rivers than in the uplands. Shorkot way, almost every well in the Hithar boasts a clump of shishams, and many are extremely fine trees. There are apparently two varieties of the táhlí,—one growing straight, and the other with the boughs drooping. The Ber (Zizyphus jujuba) is a hardy tree, and will The Ber, Siris and grow anywhere, though it prefers the soil of the Hithar. It is considered unlucky to cut down a ber, and its fruit, when ripe, is gathered by every passer-by. The fruit is highly esteemed and largely eaten by the poorer agriculturists. Careful housewives

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^{*}Geologists would say "lower," i. e., "older." But Indian geologists have fixed the relations referred to by the use of the term "old alluvium" for these highlands, the remains of the prehistoric forest-clad plains, before the concentrated drainage waters were driven to prey upon these deposits and form the "new alluvium" or river valleys.—Editor.

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The Bér, Siris and

collect and store large quantities of the berries when the crop is a the Kachhi are of a gnarled stunted growth, and never attain any to grow the ukánh on his cultivated lands. In the Bár,

The Jand.

The Jál or Pílú.

good one. The fruit has a not unpleasant rough acid taste. It ripens about March. The siris (Acacia speciosa) is rarely met with, and only near wells. It is a useless tree, but affords a good shade. The ukánh or khagal, or farásh (Tamarix orientalis) is not common anywhere except in the Bar and the Kachhi. Those in size except near wells, and the zamindar does not often choose wherever water collects or the soil is better and more moist than usual, the ukánh is sure to be found. A typical instance is to be found on the Chícháwatni road to the east of Roránwáli. The wood of the ukánh is hard, and is used in a variety of ways. Lai, the jháú of Hindustán, is found in great quantities along the river banks. It is used to make the wattle cylinders with which kachcha wells are usually lined. Near Jhang and Maghiana it is cut and used for firewood. In the Jhang tahsíl the sohánjna—horse radish tree (Moringa pterygosperma)—is found on almost every well. The fruit is preserved and used for chatnis and as a pickle. The tree is pruned regularly every year until it resembles a polled willow more than anything else. In Shorkot and Chiniot this tree is found, but not so abundantly. In the Civil Station some very fine old jand (Acacia leucophelea) trees are to be seen. Elsewhere the stunted bush is usually the form in which this tree presents itself. A jand shrub is always a sure sign of good soil, whether in the Hithár or Utár. It is unusual to find jand scrub in the Hithár, but there are a few such tracts in the southern tahsil. Like the ukánh, the jand in the Bár prefers a moist lowlying position, The jund is usually a bush, but in the more favourable localities it becomes a small tree. The peculiarly dense growth of jandjangal in the south-east corner of the Shorkot tah-sil has all ready been noticed. Here, though the surface of the soil is covered with kallar, the soil itself is good. The kallar has been washed do as a foreign substance in suspension and solution by the Rávi flood water or by the drainage from the saline upland of the Bar, and subsequently deposited by evaporation in or on the soil. The jand makes very good firewood, and affords capital grazing to carriels, sheep, and goats. The wan, júl, or pílú (Salvadora oleoides)by all three names is this tree known—is found in every part of the district. Individual trees of the largest size are found in the Kachhi and the Bár. There are two kinds of jál—the sweet and the sour, but the sour is very seldom found. The leaves of the káura jál are darker in colour and longer and broader than those of the miththá jál. The tree is much used by the cattlethieves of the Bár as a place of concealment for stolen animals. It is impossible to discover the animal except by the closest. scrutiny, and precautions are carefully taken against any movements on his part. The roots of the tree are the favourite home of the cobra. As fuel the wood is detestable. It leaves an enormous quantity of ash, has an extremely disagreeable smell, and gives but little heat. Its leaves are the favourite diet of camels during the first quarter of the hot weather. They act as a cooling alterative.

The fruit, the berry called pilú, is much prized by the poorer classes. Pilu is used both of the tree and the fruit. It is equally correct to speak of the pilu tree and of eating pilu, but it is incorrect to talk of eating wan or jal. The berry usually ripens shortly after the 15th Jeth (1st June). In 1880, there was a magnificent crop of berries that ripened a month earlier than usual, and thoroughly appreciated it was by the poor classes, with wheat selling at 10-12 seers for the rupee, and harvest below the average. They lived for nearly two months among the júl trees with their flocks, and consumed scarcely anything but pilú berries and milk. The berry is supposed to be a cooling diet. The shade of the júl is esteemed as being particularly cool and a thoroughly good protection against the sun, and the day is passed therein. The flocks are very fond of the berry also, and it is supposed to increase both the sweetness and the supply of milk. Quantities of the fruit are dried and stored. The karir bush (Capparis aphylla) is found alongside the júl in every portion of the district. The Kachhi and the Bar are its favourite habitats. It affords grazing to sheep and goats, and when hard pressed, cattle eat or chew the twigs. bears a pinky white flower, bátá; and when in blossom the Bár assumes for a few days quite a gay appearance. The fruit (dehlá) is but little used in this district. It is eaten when ripe, but the zamindars hardly talk about the crop; or if they do, never in the same terms or with the same interest as the ber and pilú berry crop is discussed. The unripe berry is made into pickle, and also is much esteemed as a tonic (musilah) for horses. The karir wood suffers less from white ants than other indigenous timber, but it does not enjoy perfect freedom from their attacks. It is used as rafters for houses, and for the spokes of the wheel on which the well pots are strung. All the more important indigenous trees and shrubs have been enumerated and described above. Among the other trees besides the fruit-bearing ones, are the bohar (Ficus Indica), the pipal (Ficus Religiosa), the lakáin (Melia Azedarach). The bolar thrives in a wonderful way in the tract near the rivers. One celebrated tree, Pir ka bohar, was carried away by the river Chenáb some 11 years ago. It was situated in the village of Haveli Mohangir, and its shade covered over half-anacre, not the many acres mentioned by a correspondent of the Agri-Horticultural Society, noted at page 213, Stewart's Punjab Plants. The pipal is found, like the bohar, throughout the district, but less frequently. The bakáin is found here and there alongside a well, but not often. Other less common trees are the barna, the amaltas (Catharticarpus fistala), the phulchi (Acaria Modesta), the white siris (Acacia elata), and the jaman (Sizygium, Jambolanum). In some of the belos, and more especially just above the junction of the Jhelam and Chenáb, a few specimens of the bahn (populus cuphratica) are found. In Jhang the local name is ubhán. The mango, mulberry, peach, apple, orange, lime, poincgranate, lemon, grape, plum, guava, &c., are the fruit trees. The mangoes are generally inferior. Most of the better zamindars have each his bagh or mango orchard. Oranges and limes succeed very well, but the other fruits are not good. The date palms of the district will be noticed in Chapter V.

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The Jal or Pila.

The Karir.

Other trees.

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Shrubs.

Láná, lání, khár.

Among plants are found the ak, $b\acute{u}\acute{i}n$, $kh\acute{i}p$, phog, $l\acute{a}n\acute{a}$, $l\acute{a}n\acute{a}$, $kh\acute{a}r$, $jaw\acute{a}nh$ or camel-thorn, $munjk\acute{a}na$, $kh\acute{a}n$, harmal, $b\acute{h}\acute{u}kil$, thistle. The ak can hardly be termed a useful plant. When reduced to great extremity, goats and deer eat the leaves. $B\acute{u}\acute{i}n$ and $kh\acute{i}p$ no animal eats. Mr. Monckton says paper was made of $kh\acute{i}p$ in the Jhang jail. It certainly is not put to this use now, though experiments may have been made with the plant in former days. All enquiries have been met with one answer, that it is valueless. Phog comes in the same category. It is found chiefly in the Thal or the sandy tracts of the Bár. It is seldom eaten by cattle. $L\acute{a}n\acute{a}$, $l\acute{a}n\acute{a}$ and $kh\acute{a}r$ are all found in this district. There are two kinds of $l\acute{u}n\acute{a}-qora$ and mithar. Mr. Steedman writes:—

"Láná is evidently the gora láná of the Montgomery Settlement Report, and lání the mithar láná. I cannot quite follow the notes in the 'Punjab Plants,' and I fancy the writer was not perfectly clear as to his facts. Anabasis multiflora is apparently mithar láná or the lání of Jhang; but what salsolas are the Garoxylon fetidum, and Sweda fruticosa! The latter is probably the láná or gora láná. Caroxylon Griffithi is the khár. There is a considerable disagreement as to what plant or plants sajji is made from. In the Jhang district sajjí is made from khár only. I have made repeated enquiries, and have always received the same answers, that sajji is made from khair, but that sometimes, as sugar is sanded, and as a variety of jams are partly made from turnips and decayed figs, so is the bulk of the sajji increased by burning láná with the khár. I have been constantly in camp at the time the $kh\acute{a}r$ is cut, and I have never seen a single bundle of cut làná, and such adulteration is very uncommon. plants are excellent grazing for camels. Khàr is the best, and làní the worst. Khàr, Mr. Monckton happily phrases it, forms a useful alterative in the diet of camels that graze in the Bar. Lànà forms the staple food of the camel for at least 8 months in the year. During May, June and July the jal is browsed, and then land grazing commences."

Other shrubs.

The process of manufacturing sajjí is described in the Sháhpur Gazetteer, and in "Punjab Products," pp. 86-88. Jawánh, jawasa camel-thorn, is found most abundantly in the waste and fallow lands subject to inundation from the rivers. It is a popular error to suppose that camels eat it. As a rank weed, it does much harm to cultivation. The thistle, leh, is another weed that springs up in old sailáh lands. Harmal and bhákíl are two weeds characteristic of the Kachhi well cultivation. Harmal grows chiefly on fallow lands. Bhákíl loves a light sandy soil, springs up with the crop, and chokes it.

Sar, munj, káná.

The plant saccharum manja is so characteristic of the Chenáb valley, and plays so important a part in agriculture, that it deserves separate and special notice. It is found but infrequently on the Jhelam. The Jhelam soil is too good to be left to grow sar only. Along the Chenáb there is hardly a single village in which it is not to be seen. The area under sar increases as one goes south. There is more sar in Shorkot than in Jhang, in Jhang than in Chiniot. The difference in the country before and after the káná or flower stems are cut is astonishing. In October and November, in the tracts where this plant grows, the view is closed in on every side by the flower stems, and a bird's-eye view of the lie of a

village is impossible. The leaves sar, the flower stems kání and till, the stem sheaths munj, are all parts of the same plant, búta. The leaves are used for thatching houses, the káná reeds being bound round the edges and across to strengthen the thatch. In the cold weather they are often the only pasturage of the cattle. They are also cut, chopped up, and mixed like bhusa with grain, oil cake, or green stuff. In the early spring the grass is fired, and the cattle graze on the green shoots that quickly sprout again. Only the inferior patches of sar are treated thus, as the plant seldom produces munj káná after being burnt. The dry sar leaf is not very fattening, but it serves to keep the cattle in condition, and to have bûte plants inside the village boundary is always considered a great advantage. The káná reeds are used for a variety of purposes, for strengthening thatch, for making chairs, couches, and stools, for the frame-work of bhúsa stacks, pallá, &c. The upper portion of the stem, tili, is the portion broken off, the sheath of which is made into munj. The sheath of the lower portion of the stem is never so used. The tili is made into sirki and mats, and is also used for the manufacture of winnowing trays, baskets, Munj is the most valuable of all the products of this plant. The manufacture of the munj into rope may be seen almost any day in any jail in the western Punjab. The lower ends of a bundle of the petioles are first burnt, then they are pounded into fibres, and lastly twisted into a rope. The ropes used in agriculture are made almost entirely of munj. The well ropes, the ties that attach the well pots to the rungs of the well rope, the string portion of charpais, are all made of munj. Several villages have of late commenced to sell their munj káná, and large sums are realised. The zamindars say there are two kinds of sar,—the white and black. The black has a broader and darker coloured leaf, and gives the longest and stoutest káná. The white sar plant is better grazing, and produces better munj. It is, however, probable that they are one and the same plant under different conditions. The white sar is found in lighter soils than the other The kánh (sarcharum spontaneum) is only found in the moistest portions of lands adjoining the rivers. It is most valuable pasture for buffaloes. The zamindárs go so far as saying that if there were no kánh there would be no buffaloes. It makes the thickest jangal in the district, and is much liked on that account by wild pig. Pens are made from it. It is too valuable to be used for thatch.

As the well-being of the people of this district is so intimately connected with the existence of good pasturage, it will be useful to give a list of the principal grasses, with a few remarks. Chhimbar is the most common grass in the Bár, and appears to thrive in every kind of soil,—sandy, clayey, or saline. With good rain it attains a fair height, and is very dense in growth. It is one of the best. Lamb is a feathery grass of average quality, and is found growing in kallar. Kúrya is uncommon. It is a first-class grass. Horses do particularly well on it. Lunák is a tall upstanding grass, requires a good deal of rain for a good crop, grows in kallar, and is a first-class grass. Garham is not unlike

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lunak in appearance, but grows higher and stronger. It is not found in kallar, but usually under bushes and where dung has fallen, and is inferior in quality. Khar madhána is a small grass, with seeds shaped like a wood-louse, inferior in quality. Dhaman is the best of all grasses. It is found in the largest quantities in the north of the district. To the south it is rare. It requires a good soil, and will not grow in kullar. The zamindars complain that the dhaman is becoming scarcer and scarcer, and attribute the scarcity to the frequent failure of the rains during late years, but it is doubtful whether this idea is correct. It is a thick, juicy, pale green grass, and grows to a considerable height in favourable years. This grass, the zamíndárs believe, if in good condition, gives a semi-intoxicating effect to the milk of buffaloes who graze on it. Pilán is another good grass. It is the principal grass of the police rakh not far from Jhang, and makes excellent sweet hay, not so fragrant or tender as English hay, but still not to be despised. It is found mixed with chhimbar and kheo. Kheo is remarkable for the speed with which it springs up after rain, resembling murak in this quality, but otherwise it is a better and larger grass. Murak sprouts out in lowlying moist places after rain. Its leaves are not unlike those of the dabh, but are narrower and grow straight up. Among the prostrate grasses are the aleti. dodhak, and kilánj. All three are very hardy, and seem to do best in seasons of drought. They are dug up and given to cattle. Sheep and goats graze them on the ground. There are only two other grasses of the Bár that require notice,—the khawí and panhí. The khawi grows in hollows where water collects, and seems to prefer kallar. There is any quantity of it round Tobha Tek Singh. It has a peculiar fragrant smell, and is of a dark brownish-red colour. Cows graze upon it if hard pressed, but not otherwise. It contains little nutrition. The Bar housewives use wisps of this grass to clear out vessels used for churning or holding milk. The panhi is a very different plant, and is described roughly at p. 253, "Punjab Plants." It, like the khawi, grows in hollows and depressions, but selects only the best soils. It is never seen in kallar. It grows in tussocks like the sar grass, but instead of drooping its leaves, stand out straight and stiff. Its roots are very long and tough. They are used for making ropes, and also for the brushes used by the weavers for arranging the threads of the web. Khaskhas is obtained from the roots of the khawi.

Wild animals and game.

The beasts of prey found in the district are the wolf, the hyena, the wild cat, and lynx. Wolves are numerous both in the Sándal and the Kirána Bár. The hyena is not so often seen. The name of $b\acute{a}r$ -billa is applied both to the long and short-tailed wild cats. The one is the domestic animal run wild, and the other is a true lynx. The first attains a much larger size than the domestic cat, and is remarkably fast. The lynx is a stouter animal. Another animal frequently met with is a kind of badger, a most hideouslooking creature—vernacular name, $bijj\acute{a}$. In the interior of the Sándal Bár and between Ghapni and Khuriánwála, there are some droves of wild ponies. They are the offspring of escaped domesticated animals. Major Harcourt had one that was driven with

秀大生海人花野 清

another horse in a pony carriage. A remarkable but a true story is told of another of these ponies that got loose at Siálkot and found his way back to his old haunts at Ghapui. The parents of these wild ponies are said to have escaped in the fights between the Káthiás and Bharwánás. For the five years ending 1882, Rs. 1,195 were paid in rewards for the destruction of 345 wolves, and 570 snakes.

As a sporting district, Jhang is not particularly good, and yet not bad. Black buck are only found in one portion of the district, between the Kirána hills and the Sháhpur district. There are none in the Sándal Bár included in this district, except perhaps a few near the Gujránwála boundary. Ravine deer are plentiful in the Bar. They especially affect the tract near Tobha Tek Singh and Ghapni, where there is very little cover. They are extremely wary, and it is very difficult to get within shot of them. In the Kirána Bár also, ravine deer are common, but not in such quantities as on the other side of the Chenáb. There are one or two places in the Kachhi near the Thal where they are generally to be found. Páhrá, or hog deer, are found in almost all the large belis on the Chenáb. There are a good number in Shorkot, a few in Jhang, and hardly any in Chiniot. Jackals are found in great numbers along the Chenáb. There are not very many in the Bárs. The Kirána hill swarms with them, and the fukirs give them a daily dole. Seeing the jackals fed is a remarkable sight. One of the fakirs stands on the edge of the wall and shouts, "O gidro, gidro, uo! ao! ao!" and the jackals seem to spring out of the ground by magic. Where nothing could be seen but a steep bare hill side, is suddenly thronged by 20 or 30 jackals. Bits of chapáti are then thrown down to them, and the way in which they scamper down hill after the pieces is wonderful. Foxes are found all over the district. There are two distinct kinds, one fox is of a very light yellowish-brown colour, so as to be almost indistinguishable from the colour of the ground after drought, with a curved sabreshaped brush of a darker shade on the upper than on the lower side, and ending in a white tag. The second kind is very much darker in hue, and has a perfectly straight brush with a black tag. This species is more compact in form, with a stouter body than the first. Both foxes give capital sport, but the light-coloured one has better staying powers, and is also faster than the other. Numbers are to be found in the tract of Bár adjoining the civil station. Hares are found more or less all over the district. In Chiniot there are but few, except in the interior of the Bar beyond Shahkot, where they are plentiful. In the Vichanh they are seldom met with. is a very good supply all along the Chenáb on the left bank. On the right bank the cultivation is too dense. The hare found in the moist alluvial lands adjoining the rivers is small in size, and does not afford good coursing. It has neither speed nor stamina. The hares of the Utar and Bar give excellent sport, but the Kachhi and Thal hares are supposed to be the hardiest of all. There are a great number of pig in the jund jungal of Bhera and the adjoining portion of Mooltan. From here they spread into the dense jungal that extends from Jalalpur to Alahyar Juta, and

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the various thick belás on the river. But the country is bad for riding. Pig are found now and again in Bela Baggar near the junction of the two rivers, and in one or two places above Jhang, and there are pig in the Sándal Bár near Sángla.

Among game-birds, the bustard, tukdar, the houbara, gurain, quraini, sandgrouse, coulon, geese, ducks, and quail are annual visitors. The larger bustard is found in the Sándal Bár, but is very rare. The houbard (pronounced obara here) is plentiful in the cold weather all over the district. They are found in the kallar plain round Tobha Tek Singh in as great numbers as anywhere. The lesser bustard is also seen near the sadr station. Coulon $(k \acute{u}nj)$ come in with the cold weather in great numbers. They are found principally in the Hithár. Geese come in later than coulon, and are particularly fond of the banks of the Jhelam and the lower They seem to like particular localities, and may be seen in great numbers in Alikhanána and Rashídpur west of the Chenáb, and in Dabh Kalán and Kachcha Kabíra on the left bank. There are very few duck, and still fewer snipe in the district. There is only one small pond in the whole of the Chiniot tahsíl where duck are, as a rule, to be found. In Jhang they are equally scarce. It is only in Shorkot on the budhs of the Rávi that good shooting can be obtained. The best dhans are in Nalera and Khutpur Sanda. Teal, spotted-bills. mallard, white-eyes, shovellers, gadwalls, are the commonest kinds. Quail are plentiful both in spring and autumn. The autumn shooting is the best, and certainly the most enjoyable. The larger sandgrouse is found in large numbers all over the district in November and December. It is quite a sight to see the flocks flying to and from the Chenáb for their morning's drink. After December a fair number still remain, but not so many as before. The pin-tailed grouse has also been shot in the district, and the common sandgrouse stays all the year round. There are very few black partridges in the district. In the Shorkot tahsil, but nowhere else, are there places where a few shots can always be got. The grev partridge is found infrequently all over the district.

Fish and Fisheries.

Fishing is not practised generally as a profession, upon either the Jhelam or the Chenáb. At Lalera, however, in the extreme south of the district, a few families devote themselves to fishing, and fish are sent from this place for sale at Mooltan.

Reptiles.

The snakes most common in Jhang are the Karet and Cobra. In the Bár many and wondrous snakes are said to exist. The following are among the most venomous:—Karundia, Khapra, Khan, Sangchúr, Phanniar or Chhajlíwála, the Cobra, Bindo-a and Garra.

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CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Considerable interest attaches to the early history of this district, from the identification, now placed beyond a doubt, of the ruins upon a small rocky hill, near the border of the district towards Gujránwála, with the Sákala of the Brahmans, the Ságal of Buddhism, and the Sangala of Alexander's historians. The identity of the three places had long ago been recognized, but the position has been only recently determined. Fortunately for the cause of history, the place was visited, in A.D. 630, by the Chinese pilgrim Hwen Thsang. Both Arrian and Curtius apparently place Sangala to the east of the Rávi, but the itinerary of Hwen Thsang shows that it was to the west of that river, as nearly as possible in the position of the small hill known in modern times as the Sángláwála Tibba.* The discrepancy is probably to be thus accounted for:—Alexander is stated by both Curtius and Arrian to have been in full march for the Ganges, when he heard "that certain free Indians and Kathaeans† were resolved to give him battle if he attempted to lead his army thither." He no sooner heard this than he immediately directed his march against the Kathæans, that is, he changed the previous direction of his march and proceeded towards Sangala. This was the uniform plan on which he acted during his campaign in Asia, to leave no enemy behind him. When he was in full march for Persia, he turned aside to besiege Tyre; when he was in hot pursuit of Bessus, the murderer of Darius, he turned to the south to subdue Drangiana and Arachosia; and, when he was longing to enter India, he deviated from his direct march to besiege Aornos. With the Kathæans the provocation was the same. Like the Tyrians, the Drangians, and the Bazárians of Aornos, they wished to avoid rather than oppose Alexander; but, if attacked, they were resolved to resist. Alexander was then on the eastern bank of the Hydraotes or Rávi, and, on the day after his departure from the river, he came to the city of Pimprama where he halted to refresh his soldiers, and on the third day reached Sangala. As he was obliged to halt after his first two marches, they must have been forced ones of not less than 25 miles each, and his last may have been a common march of 12 or 15 miles. Sangala, therefore, must have been about 60 or 65 miles from the camp on the bank of the Chapter II.

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^{*} The following account is abridged from General Cunningham's Archaeological Report, vol. II., pp. 192, 200. Further information will be found at pp. 179 to 191 of the same author's Ancient Geography of India.

¹⁹¹ of the same author's Ancient Geography of India.

†The Katheans have been identified with the Jat clan of Káthia, whose territory is in the modern district of Montgomery. The history of the tribe has been discussed in the account of that district—See Gazetteer of the Montgomery district.

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Hydraotes. Now, this is the exact distance of the Sangala Hill from Lahore, which was most probably the position of Alexander's camp when he heard of the recusancy of the Kathæi. General Cunningham believes, therefore, that Alexander at once gave up his march to the Ganges and recrossed the Rávi to punish the people of Sangala for daring to withhold their submission.

Sángláwála Tibba.

Sángláwála Tibba is a small rocky hill forming two sides of a triangle, with the open side towards the south-east. The north side of the hill rises to a height of 215 feet, but the north-east side is only 160 feet. The interior area of the triangle slopes gradually down to the south-east, till it ends abruptly in a steep bank 32 feet above the ground. This bank was once crowned with a brick wall, which can still be traced at the east end where it joined the rock. The whole area is covered with brick ruins. The bricks are of very large size, $15 \times 9 \times 3$ inches. During the last fifteen years these bricks have been removed in great numbers. Nearly 4,000 were carried to the large village of Marh, six miles to the north, and about the same number must have been taken to the top of the hill to form a tower for the survey operations. The base of the hill is from 1.700 to 1.800 feet on each side, or just one mile in circuit. On the east and south sides the approach to the hill is covered by a large swamp, half a mile in length and nearly a quarter of a mile in breadth, which dries up annually in the summer, but during the seasonal rains has a general depth of about 3 feet. In the time of Alexander this must have been a fine sheet of water, which has been gradually lessened in depth by the annual washings of silt from the hill above. On the north-eastern side of the hill there are the remains of two large buildings, from which old bricks were obtained by General Cunningham, of the enormous size of $17.1 \times 11 \times 3$ inches. Close by there is an old well, which was lately cleared out by some of the wandering tribes. On the north-western side, 1,000 feet distant, there is a low ridge of rock called Munda-kapura, from 25 to 30 feet in height and about 500 feet in length. which has once been covered with brick buildings. At 13 mile to the south there is another ridge of three small hills called Arna or little Sangala. All these hills are formed of the same dark grey rock as that of Chiniot and the Kirána hills to the west of the Chenáb, which contains much iron, but is not worked on account of the want of fuel. The production of iron is noticed by Hwen Thsang.

The Bráhminical accounts of Sákala have been collected from the Mahábhárata by Professor Lassen.* According to that poem, Sákala, the capital of the Mádras, who are also called Jártikas, and Báhikas, was situated on the Apagá rivulet to the west of the Irávati or Rávi river. It was approached from the east side by pleasant paths through the $pil\acute{u}$ forest. The country is still well known as Mádrades or the district of the Mádras, which is said by some to extend from the Biás to the Jhelam, but by others only to the Chenáb. The Apagá rivulet, General Cunningham

^{*} Pentapotamia Indica, pp. 73 and 74.

recognizes in the Ayak Nadi, a small stream which has its rise in the Jammu hills to the north-east of Siálkot. Near Asarúr (in Gujránwála) the bed of this stream divides into two branches, which, after passing to the east and west of Asarúr, rejoin at 2½ miles to the south of Sángláwála Tibba. Near Asarúr and Sangala, the Avak is now quite dry at all seasons, but there must have been water in it at Dhakáwála only 24 miles above Asarúr even so late as the reign of Sháh Jahán, when his son Dára Shikoh drew a canal from that place to his hunting seat at Shekhupura, which is also called the Ayak or Jhilri Canal.

The Buddhist notices of Sákala refer chiefly to its history in connection with Buddhism. A legend is told of seven kings who went towards Ságal to carry off Prabhávati, the wife of King Kusa; but the king, mounting an elephant, met them outside the city and cried out with so loud a voice, "I am Kusa," that the exclamation was heard over the whole world, and the seven kings fled away in terror.* But there is no other mention of Sákala until A.D. 633, when it was visited by Hwen Thsang, who describes the neighbouring town of Tse-kia as the capital of a large kingdom, which extended from the Indus to the Bias, and from the foot of the hills to the confluence of the five rivers.

The classical notices of Sángala are confined to the two historical accounts of Arrian and Curtius and a passing mention by Diodorus. Curtius simply calls it "a great city defended not only by a wall but by a swamp (palus)." But the swamp was a deep one, as some of the inhabitants afterwards escaped by 'swimming across it (paludem transnavere). Arrian calls it a lake, but adds that it was not deep, that it was near the city wall, and that one of the gates opened upon it. He describes the city itself as strong both by art and nature, being defended by brick walls and covered by the lake. Outside the city there was ha hill which the Katheans had surrounded with a triple line of carts for the protection of their camp. This little hill may probably be identified with a low ridge to the north-west called Mundakapúra, which would certainly appear to have been outside the city walls. The camp on the hill must have been formed chiefly by the fugitives from other places, for whom there was no room in the already crowded city. The Greeks attacking this outpost carried the first and second line of carts, and drove the defenders back within the city walls. Then using the carts to form a barrier round the margin of the lake, they commenced the siege of the city itself. The Kathæans made an attempt to escape by night across the lake, but were checked by the barrier of carts, and driven back into the city. The walls were then breached by undermining, and the place was taken by assault. The loss of the Kathæans is stated

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^{*} Hardy's Manual of Buddhism, p. 263, note.

[†] See Gazetteer of the Gujranwala district. ‡ Vita Alexandri, IX., I. "ad magnam deinde urbem pervenit, non muro solum sed etiam palude munitam." § Anabasis, V. 22.

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Hwen Thsang, when he visited Sákala in A.D. 630, found the walls completely ruined, but their foundations still remained, showing a circuit of about 31 miles. In the midst of the ruins was a small portion of the old city, still inhabited, about one mile in circuit. There was a Buddhist Monastery of 100 monks, and two Buddhist topes, or stupas, one of which was the work of the famous king Asoka.

Shorkot.

Another town of considerable historical interest in this district is that of Shorkot. It is identified with great probability by General Cunningham with one of the towns of the Malli,* attacked and taken by Alexander, and with a city visited in the 7th. century by the same Hwen Thsang to whom history owes the identification of Sángala. The narrative of the campaign against the Malli has been given in the account of Mooltan.† account of the city, see Chapter VI, heading "Shorkot." At the time of Hwen Thsang + Shorkot was the capital town of the central district of the Punjab, bounded on the north by the Province of Táki, on the south by Mooltan, and on the west and east by the Indus and the Sutlej. The circuit, as stated by Hwen Thsang, was 833 miles, but General Cunningham shows that it cannot have exceeded about 530 miles. |

Location of tribes.

For a clear account of what little is known of the modern history of this district, it is first necessary to describe the localities of the various tribes who have from time to time played their small parts. The Sials occupy the whole of the country on the left bank of the Chenáb, from the southern boundary of tahsíl Chiniot to the Rávi. On the right bank of the upper Chenáb a comparatively small tract only is held by them, lying south of a line drawn from the boundary of Kot Khán to the southern boundary of Shah Jiwana. On the Jhelam's right bank, below a point opposite to the northern boundary of Kot Khán, the Siál villages are few; but from its point of junction with the Chenáb down to the Muzaffargarh district, there is along the river an almost unbroken chain of Siál villages. Away from the river most of the villages are the property of Beloches. In what is now the Chiniot tansil on the left bank of the Chenáb, the Chaddhars inhabit the tract between the Siál country and the villages of the Sayads of Rajoa. Beyond them come a motley mixture of Sayads, Harals, Khokhars, and miscellaneous Jats. The tribal limits west of the Chenáb in the Chiniot tahsíl are remarkably clearly demarcated. The Bhattís, Lálís, and Nissowanas hold the whole of the northern portion in the above order, from a few miles beyond the Jhang tansil boundary to that of the Shahpur district. Below these tribes along the river bank

^{*} See Gazetteer of the Mooltan district.

⁺ See Gazetteer of the Mooltan district.

[†] The name is spelt by Hwen Thsang "Po-'o-fa-to." General Cunningham would read "So-lo-fa-to," which when transliterated would become Sorovati, and would be a synonym for Shorkot. Ancient Geography of India p. 204.

[§] See Gazetteer of the Gujranwala district. | See General Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, pp. 203 to 208, and his Archæological Survey, vol. V., pp. 97 to 103.

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come the Gilotars next to the Shahpur boundary; then Harals, Sayads and unimportant Jats, until the Jhang tahsíl boundary is again reached, coinciding with that of the Shah Jiwana iláka. This tract, the property of the two Sayad families, the descendants Location of tribes. of Pir Fatah Khán and Shah Jiwana, extends to the country held by the Siáls in the Vichanh in the south-west, and northwards to the Khokhar villages above. North of the Siál country, bounded by Kot Khán, come the Akeras, a Jat tribe of no historical interest but of considerable present influence. Beyond them. Khokhars, Jats, and Beloches along the river, and Khokhars in the upland villages, are the proprietors as far as the Sháhpur boundary. West of the Jhelam above the Sial country, almost all the villages belong to Beloches.

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The history of Jhang is the history of the Sial, and until the Preliminary sketch reign of Walidad Khan, in the first half of the 18th century, the of the modern his annals of the district and its tribes are enveloped in Cimmerian Apparently no facts are forthcoming, for the simple reason that there are none. Passing by the expedition of Alexander and the march of Hephæstus down the left bank of the Jhelam and lower Chenáb, through the country now included in this district, the first tangible facts are gained from Bábar's memoirs. In the year 1504-5 A.D., when Babar passed through the Khaibar pass and advanced on Pesháwar, he wrote :- "The Government of Bhera. "Khusháb and Chenáb was held by Sayad Alí Khán. He read the "Khutba in the name of Iskandar Bahlol, and was subject to him. "Being alarmed at my inroad, he abandoned the town of Bhera, "crossed the river Behat (Vehat is still the local name for the Jhelam) "and made Shirkot (Shorkot?), a place in the district of Bhera, his "capital. After a year or two, the Afgháns having conceived suspi-"cions against Sayad Alí on my account, he became alarmed at their "hostility, and surrendered his country to Daulat Khán, who was "Governor of Lahore. Daulat Khan gave Bhera to his eldest son "Alí Khán, by whom it was now (1519) held." Alí Khán and his father were governors under the Lodi dynasty of Dehli, then represented by Ibrahím Lodi, the last of his line. Shortly before the above passage, Bábar speaks of the country of Bhera, Khusháb, Chenáb and Chiniot as having been long in the possession of the Turks, and ruled over by the family of Timur Beg and his adherents and dependants ever since his invasion of India in 1398. The matter of most interest to the historian of Jhang is the locality and limits of these countries. Where was the Chenab country? Is the Shirkot where Sayad Alí Khán fled, the Shorkot of to-day? If so, how could Bábar write of it as being in the district of Bhera, for the Khusháb country must have intervened? Mr. Steedman is incurred to identify Shirkot with Shorkot, and to place the Chenáb country south of Chiniot and Khusháb. Whether this is right or wrong, Jhang and the Siáls were not of sufficient importance to be mentioned at the commencement of the 16th century A.D. They remained equally unknown and unnoticed during the two centuries that elapsed between Bábar's first invasion and the accession to the throne of Muhammad Sháh in 1720 A.D. It was not until the stirring times during which the dynasty of the Mughals tottered

tory of the district.

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Preliminary sketch of the modern history of the district.

and fell, the half century that witnessed the rise of the Sikhs and the Mahrattas, and the devastating inroads of Ahmad Sháh, that the Siáls can be said to have been even temporarily independent. Previous to Walidád's accession, the Siáls probably were a pastoral tribe, but little given to husbandry, dwelling on the banks of the rivers and grazing their cattle during the end of the cold and the first months of the hot weather in the lowlands of the Chenáb, and during the rainy season in the uplands of the Bár. The greater portion of the tract now occupied by them was probably acquired during the stormy century that preceded the conquest of Hindústánby the Mughals. During this period the country was dominated from Bhera and sometimes from Mooltan. The collection of revenue from a nomad population inhabiting the fastnesses of the Bár and the deserts of the Thal could never have been easy, and was probably seldom attempted. Left alone, the Siáls applied themselves successfully to dispossessing those that dwelled in the land,—the Nauls, Bhangús, Mangans, Marals, and other old tribes, amusing themselves at the same time with a good deal of internal strife and quarrelling, and now and then with stiffer fighting with the Kharals and Beloches. Then for 200 years there was peace in the land, and the Siáls remained quiet subjects of the Lahore Suba, the seats of local government being Chiniot and Shorkot. Walidád Khán died in 1747, one year before Ahmad Sháh Abdálí made his first inroad and was defeated before Dehli. It is not known when he succeeded to the chieftainship, but it was probably early in the century, for a considerable time must have been taken up in the reduction of minor chiefs and the introduction of all the improvements with which Walidad is credited. It was during Walidad's time that the power of the Siáls reached its zenith. The country subject to Walidad extended from Mankera in the Thal eastwards to Kamália on the Rávi, from the confluence of the Rávi and the Chenáb to the ilàka of Pindi Bhattián beyond Chiniot. He was succeeded by his nephew Inávatulla, who was little if at all inferior to his uncle in administrative and military ability. He was engaged in constant warfare with the Bhangí Sikhs on the north, and the chiefs of Mooltan to the south. His near relations, the Siál chiefs of Rashídpur, gave him constant trouble and annoyance. Once indeed a party of forty troopers raided Jhang and carried off the Khán prisoner. He was a captive for six months. The history of the three succeeding chieftains is that of the growth of the power of the Bhangis and of their formidable rival the Sukarchakia misl. destined to be soon the subjugator of both Bhangis and Siáls, Chiniot was taken in 1803, Jhang in 1806. Ahmad Khán, the last of the Siál Kháns, regained his country shortly after in 1808, but in 1810 he was again captured by the Mahárája, who took him to Lahore and threw him into prison. Thus ended whatever independence the Siál Kháns of Jhang had ever enjoyed.

Early history of the dád Khán's reign.

The previous paragraph contains a brief sketch of the history Sial clan up to Wali- of the Sials and their rule over the southern portion of the country now comprised in the Jhang district. It is now necessary to fill in the details so far as they have been ascertained. The sources į

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from which the information now given has been compiled, are the history of the Siál by Maulví Núr Muhammad Chela, Griffin's "Punjab Chiefs," and the local stories and traditions. The Siáls are descended from Rái Shankar, a Panwár Rájpút, a resident of Early history of the Dháránagar between Allahábád and Fatehpur. A branch of the Panwars had previously emigrated from their native country to Jaunpur, and it was there that Rái Shankar was born. One story has it that Rái Shankar had three sons—Séu, Téu, and Ghéu from whom have descended the Siáls of Jhang, the Tiwánás of Sháhpur, and the Ghebás of Pindi Gheb. Another tradition states that Siál was the only son of Rái Shankar, and that the ancestors of Tiwánás and Ghebás were only collateral relations of Shankar On the death of Rái Shankar we are told that great dissensions arose among the members of the family, and his son Siál emigrated during the reign of Alá-ud-dín Ghorí to the Punjab. It was about this time that many Rájpút families emigrated from the provinces of Hindústán to the Punjab, including the ancestors of the Kharals, Tiwánás, Ghebás, Chaddhars and Panwár Siáls. It was the fashion in those days to be converted to the Muhammadan religion by the eloquent exhortations of the sainted Báwa Faríd of Pákpattan, and accordingly we find that Siál in his wanderings came to Pákpattan, and there renounced the religion of his ancestors. The saint blessed him, and prophesied that his son's seed should reign over the tract between the Jhelam and Chenáb rivers. This prediction was not very accurate. Báwa Farid died about 1264-65. Siál and his followers appear to have wandered to and fro in the Rachna and Chaj Doábs for some time before they settled down with some degree of permanency on the right bank of the Jhelam. It was during this unsettled period that Siál married one of the women of the country, Sohág, daughter of Bhái Khán Mekan of Sáhiwál in the Sháhpur district, and is also said to have built a fort at Siálkot while a temporary resident there. At their first settlement in this district, the Siáls occupied the tract of country lying between Mankera in the Thal and the river Jhelam, east and west, and from Khusháb on the north to what is now called the Garh Máhárája ilàka on the south. Mankera is said to have been founded by Mának, and Amowáni, now called Haidarábád, by Amo, sons of Diráj. The tomb of Chúchak, a leading man of the Kohli branch, is at Kotli Bákir Sháh, and Maggún, the ancestor of the Maghiánás, emigrated to Maghiána from Lohábhir. About the year 1462, Mal Khán, ninth in descent from Siál, f unded Jhang Siál on the banks of the Chenáb. The old town of Jhang was situate west of the tomb of Núr Sháh, south-west of the modern town, and was subsequently carried away by the river. There are still some traces of the old town to be seen. Mr. Monckton wrote of Mal Khan:-"He was "the first of a race of rulers who, under the title of Khán, exercised "an extensive sway over the neighbouring countries, till the rising "fortune of the Sikhs, guided by the genius of Ranjit Singh, "successively absorbed all the minor principalities within the "territory of the five rivers." But Mr. Monckton much over-estimated the power and influence of the Siáls before the reign of Walidád

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Khán. At this period the throne of Dehli was occupied by the Lodhis, and this part of the Punjab was included in the governments of Chiniot and Shorkot and Khushab. There were, however, no resident governors, and the Siáls paid in their revenue to the Nauls, who were the dominant tribe in the country round Jhang. Mal Khán, after the foundation of Jhang, visited Lahore, and obtained the farm of the Jhang revenues from the Governor. Another account is that he met the Governor at Chiniot. Mal Khán belonged to the Chuchkáná branch of the Siáls. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Daulat Khán, who was killed near the Thal while repelling a Beloch raid. His tomb is still to be seen at Wású Astháná. The chieftainship descended to his son Gházi Khán, whose first act was to revenge his father's death and inflict severe punishment on the Beloches. He built a fort on the banks of the Jhelam, a short distance above its junction with the Chenáb. where the village of Chauntra now stands. It is related that Gházi Khán was the first Siál chief who established a standing army. The next prince was Jalál Khán, son of Gházi Khán. He appears to have been deficient in ability as a governor, and unable to restrain his unruly tribesmen. The minor chiefs of Khíwa and Pahárpur now first appear on the scene. Rashídpur was founded by Jalál Khán's son Rashíd, and Pahárpur by Pahár Khán, a nephew of Jalál Khán, who had quarrelled with his uncle, and set up an independent chiefship. Pahár Khán treacherously slew his uncle while on a visit to him, made with the object of effecting a reconciliation. He was succeeded by his son Rashíd Khán, who abdicated in favour of his son Firoz Khán. Firoz Khán's first enterprise was to exact retribution for his grandfather's murder. His brother Kabír Khán collected the youth of Jhang and took by storm the fort of Pahárpur. All the descendants of Pahár Khán who were taken were put to the sword. The remnant that escaped founded the fort of Gilmála, about 15 miles to the south-west of After this exploit Kabír Khán and Firoz Khán ruled jointly, and when Firoz Khán died his brother ascended the throne. The next chief was Jahán Khán. The eight sons of Jahán Khán were superseded, and their cousin Gházi Khán obtained the chieftainship. Gházi Khán lost his sight, and abdicated in favour of his son Sultán Muhammad, between whom and the Kharals there was constant hostility. The story told at page 510 of the "Punjab Chiefs" does not agree with the account given by Maulví Núr Muhammad. Prince Maujuddín stopped at Kamália on his way to Mooltan and Dera Gházi Khán. He was at the time leading an expedition to punish some rebellious Beloches. Saádatyár Khán, the Kharal chief, complained to the prince of the conduct of the Sials and their leader Sultan Mahmud. The prince ordered Sultán Mahmúd to be thrown into confinement, but deferred enquiry into the charges until his return from the frontier. The nobleman who was deputed to arrest Sultán Mahmúd and take him to Mooltan was so pleased with his manners and address, that he interceded with Maujuddin for him. The prince then sent for Sultan Mahmúd, but Saádatyár Khán, fearing that the true cause of the enmity between himself and the Sial chief would leak out and the

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groundless nature of his accusation be exposed, intercepted the messenger and beguiled him into adding to his message the advice that it was Sultán Mahmúd's best policy to make friends with the Kharal and give him his sister in marriage. The Siál was so exasperated at his proposal that he then and there killed the messenger with his fists, and was himself slain in the melée that ensued. All this took place at Mooltan, for Sultán Mahmúd's tomb is there. Sultán Mahmúd left no children, and was succeeded by his brother Lál Khán, whose mother was a prostitute. He was taunted by Saádatyár Khán for this taint in his ancestry, and in revenge he plundered up to the walls of Kamália, and ravaged the Kharal country. Lál Khán died childless, and was succeeded by his brother Mahram Khán, of whom nothing is known. He met his death at the hands of a herdsman, who shot him in mistake for a robber, and his son Walidád reigned in his stead.

Walidad Khan was by far the most able chieftain that ever His talent for civil administration was only ruled the Siáls. equalled by his skill and success as a military leader. Under his beneficent rule a rude people first learnt what justice was; severe punishments and a rigorous enforcement of the track law put a stop to crime; a moderate assessment of land revenue resulted in an extension of cultivation and the construction of a number of wells that now seems fabulous; while the kingdom of the Siáls advanced to limits that it never knew before, and has never reached since. When Walidad Khan succeeded his father, the boundaries of his kingdom were most narrow. Within a few miles of Jhang fort to the north lay lands that acknowledged the sway of the Máhní chief of Khíwa. Southwards another and more powerful chief, a Nithráná Siál, with his head-quarters at Mírak Siál, 26 miles from Jhang, ruled over the country from Shorkot to within 12 or 15 miles of Jhang. In the Vichanh was the independent chief of Massan, a Sáhibána Siál, whose territory marched with that of the Bhairo Khokhars to the north, and with the villages of the Shah Jiwana ilaka, subject to the Sayad Latif Sháh, a descendant of Pír Fatah Khán, on the north-east. Beyond the Sayad came the lands of the Rihan chief of Kalowal. Across the Chenáb Rashídpur was the seat of Siál chiefs, sprung from the same stock as Walidad, and whom he never in the height of his power regarded as other than allies. Eastward the sovereignty of the Bar was disputed by the Kharals, represented by the Kamalia The relation in which these chiefs stood to the ruling power in the first quarter of the 18th century is not clear; but this much appears, that they were independent of the Jhang Sials, and probably paid (or often did not pay) their revenue direct to the governors of Chiniot and Mooltan. As was the custom, as his ancestor Mal Khán had done with the Nauls, so did Walidád Khán with these neighbouring chiefs of Khíwa, Massan, Shorkot, Mírak and Kamália. He first obtained from the Lahore governor the right to collect their revenue or tribute, and his next step was to make them subject to himself. His first object was secured by stratagem. The Dehli empire was fast hastening to its dissolution Chapter II.
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Walidad Khan,

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Walidád Khán.

and when the time came for payment of revenue, Walidad pretended to be ill, and delayed payment. At the same time he contrived to have hints conveyed to the neighbouring chiefs that he was a defaulter only because the government of the day was too weak to enforce the collection of its dues. The rival chiefs fell into the snare and refused payment. No sooner had they thus publicly thrown off the yoke than Walidad Khan repaired to Chiniot and paid in his revenue. The Dehli governor complained of the conduct of the other chiefs, and Walidad at once offered to pay up their revenue also, if their countries were made over to him. His offer was accepted. A small force of cavalry was deputed to assist him, and Walidad then sent for the chiefs, who obeyed the summons. They were thrown into prison for a short time, but were subsequently released and granted service jágirs. The subjection of these chiefs was followed by the reduction of the Sayad ruler of Rajoa, Latif Shah, and of the Khokhars of Márí and Bhairo. An invasion of the Beloches of Sáhiwal in aid of the Khokhars was also repelled with loss by his general, Sharif Khán Aliáná; Izzat Bakhsh Ríán was his deputy in Kálowál. It is not known how Walidád acquired the Kálowá! iláka, but most probably he obtained it as a portion of the Chiniot province. The governorship of the Chiniot province was next bestowed upon the loval (for he never professed himself other than the slave of the Dehli empire) and fortunate Siál chief. His supremacy was now acknowledged over the whole of the country included in the district of Jhang as it at present exists, together with large slices of the neighbouring districts of Montgomery and Dera Ismáil Khán. He died in 1747 at Sodra, near Wazírábád, while in attendance on Máhárája Kaurá Mal, the governor of Mooltan.

Ináyatulla Khán.

His successor Ináyatulla Khán was his nephew, and had also married his daughter. This chief was little interior as an administrator to his uncle, and in military genius was probably more than his equal. He is said to have fought and won 22 battles. He reigned 40 years, from 1747 to 1787. Able as he was, he could not stem the resistless wave of Sikh success, and at his death the Siál ascendancy was clearly on the wane. Amid encroachments of the Bhangí Sardárs from the north, inroads from Mooltan on the south, successive raids by the plundering free-booters that accompanied Ahmad Shah's invasions, attacks by the Beloches and Tiwanas, and disunion and dissensions among the Siáls themselves, it was no easy matter to steer the ship of Siál rule safely into haven. We have more facts about Ináyatulla Khán's reign than any other. commencement he associated his brother-in-law Shahadat Khan with him in the chieftainship. They sat on one throne, sheathed their swords in one scabbard, ate and drank together, and in a word rivalled in their friendship the most renowned examples afforded by antiquity. This fraternal affection did not last long. A quarrel took place. Shahadat Khan left Jhang and withdrew to Kádirpúr. He got an army together there, and marched upon Jhang. After crossing the Chenab he was met at Sultanpur by Ináyatulla Khán, and was there defeated and slain. Meanwhile an Afghán, named Dín Muhammad, had seized upon Márí beyond

Kot Isa Shah, but Inayatulla, after disposing of Shah, and Khan, marched against the invader and defeated and droy gover out of the Jhang territory. The Siáls of Rashídpur had the and become powerful, and were noted for their turbulence and bravery. To punish them for some disobedience, Ináyatulla obtained the aid of some Durrání horsemen from the governor of the day, and harried their lands. In return for this, forty horsemen of the Sials of Rashidpur gave the chief a taste of their quality by taking him prisoner at Jhang, and carrying him off under the eyes of his army to Rashidpur. They kept him in confinement in the castle of Sat in the Thal for some six months. Apparently neither during this nor the previous reign had the rule of the Siáls extended very far down the right bank of the Chenáb, for among Ináyatulla's achievements is reckoned his defeat of the two Sikhs who were the sub-governors of Islámábád and the annexation of their charge. This incensed the Governor of Mooltan, and an ambuscade was laid for Ináyatulla while on a visit to Shorkot. He, however, got word of the plan from the Sargánás of Kund Sargána, and collecting an army of Káthiás and Kamlána, Rajbána, and Sargána Siáls, defeated the Mooltan troops with great slaughter at Kotla Afgháná close by Shorkot. At one time Ináyatulla found it politic to pay Malik Sher Tiwana black mail as the cheapest way of protecting the outlying pargana of Márí. Subsequently, thinking himself strong enough, he discontinued the payment. Sher Khán then assembled his clan, and driving the Siáls out of Kháí, a few miles north of the present district boundary on the right bank of the Jhelam, laid siege to Kot Langar, now Thattí Langar, just inside the present boundary. Here Ináyatulla met and defeated the Tiwáná force. Both sides are said to have had some Sikh chiefs as auxiliaries. period the Siál chief defeated and subdued the Beloches of Haidarábád in the Thal. He also took the fort of Uch founded by a Belot Sayad who had settled in the Kachhi during his reign. was in this reign that the Bhangí Sardárs first made their power About 1760, Hari Singh ravaged Jhang and imposed a felt. About 1778, Inávatulla ceased to pay tribute and recaptured Chiniot, but it had apparently again fallen into the hands of the Bhangis before his death. It is related of Inayatulla that he met Jahán Khán, the grandfather of Dost Muhammad Khán of Kábul, while on his way back from Hindústán, who asked for one of his sisters in marriage. There were three or four unmarried, but the proud Sial sent word to Bhawani Das, his Divan, to have them all married at once, and declined the proferred alliance on the ground that he had no sisters unmarried.

Ináyatulla died in 1787, and was succeeded by his imbecile son Sultán Mahmúd, whose weakness only served to set off the great force of character possessed by his wife Mussammát Niámat Khátún, the daughter of Shahádat Khán. Mánh Singh, father of Ranjít Singh, nourished designs on Jhang, but the army collected by Mussammát Niámat Khátún was so formidable that he postponed his invasion. Shortly after, Sáhib Khán, half brother of Sultán Mahmúd, who was constantly endeavouring to dethrone

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Sultán hhmúd, sought assistance from Mánh Singh, and was promised to ha but the promise was not carried out, as Timúr Sháh was adva to ha mooltan. Finally, Sahib Khán obtained an entry to Jhang by treachery, and with 85 men only at his back, captured the fort and put Niámat Khátún and Bhawání Dás, the Díván, to death. Sultán Mahmúd was absent from Jhang and marched against the usurper, but he was inveigled to a meeting, seized and imprisoned at the fort of Chauntra, and shortly afterwards Sáhib Khán put him to death. Sáhib Khán was himself assassinated at a marriage feast a few months after. Sáhib Khán left a son by a woman of the prostitute class, who died three years after at Uch; his successor was Kabír Khán of the line of Jahán Khán, who married Sáhib Khán's widow, the daughter of Umr Khán Sial. After a peaceful and uneventful rule,—the calm preceding the storm,—he was dethroned by, or abdicated in favour of his son Ahmad Khán, the last of the Siál Kháns. This was in 1801. Kabír Khán fled to Uch, where he was besieged unsuccessfully for two months by Ahmad Khán. When the siege was raised, Kabír Khán fled to Rangpur, where he died. Seven months after the accession of Ahmad Khán, Ranjít Singh laid siege to and took Chiniot, then held by Jassa Singh, the son of Karam Singh Dúlú, a chief of the Bhangi confederacy. It is difficult to glean any clear account of the varying fortunes of Chiniot between the death of Walidad Khán and its capture by Ranjít Singh, but the town seems to have been held almost continuously by the Bhangí Sardárs. making himself master of Chiniot, Ranjít Singh turned towards Jhang, but Ahmad Khán bought him off by agreeing to pay Rs. 70,000 a year and a mare. The first instalment was sent through Fatah Singh, Káliánwála. Ahmad Khán paid the tribute for two or three years, and then in S. 1862, A.D. 1805-6, the Máhárája again invaded Jhang with a large army. The Siál chief again endeavoured to stop the Sikh advance by a payment of nazarànà, but his offers were rejected. Jhang was invested, and after some hard fighting the town and fort were captured. Ahmad Khán fled to Mooltan, where he found an asylum with Muzaffar Khán, who granted him an allowance of Rs. 25 a day. From Jhang the Máhárája crossed the Chenáb and exacted Rs. 3,000 as nazarànà from the Sayad ruler of Uch. Thence the Sikh leader turned south and marched on Mooltan, and his progress was only stopped within a short distance of the city by a payment of Rs. 70,000. Jhang, with the exception of the Vichanh, was made over on farm to the Sikh Chief Fatah Singh, Káliánwála, the Vichanh tract being entrusted to Dyal Singh and Fatah Singh Lamah. Singh appointed Dal Singh as his sub-governor. The following year Ahmad Khán, with the assistance of a Pathán force given him by the Nawab of Mooltan, made an effort to recover his kingdom. He captured Shorkot, and having established his authority in the southern portion of Jhang, he advanced on the capital, only to retire on the arrival of Fatah Singh with a force. He next crossed the Chenáb and took refuge in the Uch fort, where he was pursued by Fatah Singh. There they came to terms, and Fatah Singh restored what portion of Jhang he held to Ahmad Khán on

his agreeing to pay an annual rent of Rs. 70,000. Ahmad Khán was reinstated, and shortly after drove out the Sikh governors of the Vichanh. The next ten years were passed in peace and quietness. Ranjít Singh was too fully engaged on other expeditions to give any attention to the affairs of Jhang. In 1810 the Máhárája had made an unsuccessful attack on Mooltan, and on his way back to Lahore he visited his chagrin on Ahmad Khán who had accompanied him as his feudatory, and whom he suspected of favouring the Mooltan Nawab. He threw him into confinement, and carried him away to Lahore. The government of Jhang was entrusted to Lála Suján Rái. Ahmad Khán's eldest son, Ináyat Khán, fled to Haidarábád in the Thal, where he was followed by Náng Sultán, the Fakir ruler of Uch. Suján Rái then took possession of Uch. Eventually Ahmad Khán was released from prison and granted a jágúr of Rs. 1,200 at Mírowál, in the Amritsar district, on Ináyat Khán his son being made over to the Máhárája as a hostage. Ahmad Khán died in 1820 on his way back from Mooltan at Ali Khanáná, and was buried at Jhang. His son Inávat Khán succeeded to his father's allowance and jágárs, and was killed in 1838, near Rasúlpur, fighting on the side of Díván Sáwan Mal against Rája Guláb Singh. Ismáil Khán, the younger brother of Ináyat Khán, and the present head of the family, went to Lahore on the death of his brother in the hope of obtaining a grant of succession to his brother's jágír. But owing to the machinations of Guláb Singh, the jágír was confiscated, and all that he got was an allowance of Rs. 100 a month. He remained at Lahore for five years, and then his pension was discontinued. He then returned to Jhang and lived there in great poverty on an allowance of ${
m Rs.}~2$ or Rs. 3 a day granted him by Díván Sáwan Mal until the Mooltan rebellion and the annexation of the Punjab.

Of his services during the campaign of 1848-49, and again in 1857, Sir Lepel Griffin writes ("Punjab Chiefs," pages 506, 507):—

"In October 1848, Major H. Edwardes wrote to Ismáil Khán directing him to raise troops in behalf of Government, and to collect the revenue of the district. The poor chief, hoping the time was come when loyalty might retrieve his fortunes, raised a force, and descending the river attacked and defeated the rebel Chief Atá Muhammad at Nekokárá. Afterwards, when Sardár Sher Singh Atáriwála had passed through Jhang and had left Deoraj in command of 1,000 men there, Ismáil Khán attacked this detachment several times with varying results. His Jamadár, Pír Kamál of Kot Isa Sháh, captured at the fort of Taraka another rebel chief called Káhan Dás. Thus Ismáil Khán, the representative of a long and illustrious line of chiefs, stood out bravely on the side of Government. His influence, which was great in the district, was all used against the rebels, and his services were specially valuable at a time when it was inexpedient to detach a force against the petty rebel leaders. After annexation Ismáil Khán was made Risáldár of the Jhang Mounted Police, but his services were through inadvertence overlooked, and it was not till 1856 that he received a pension of Rs. 600 for life. Three wells were also released to him and his male heirs in perpetuity. In

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1857 the services of the chief were conspicuous. He aided in raising a force of cavalry, and served in person against the insurgents. For his loyalty he received a khilat of Rs. 500 and the title of Khán Bahádur, and his yearly grant of Rs. 600 was raised to Rs. 1,000, with the addition of a jagir of Rs. 350 for life. In 1860 his pension was at his own desire exchanged for a life jagir. He has recovered many of his old zamíndárí rights in different villages, and although his estate is only held on a life tenure, yet the Government on his death will take care that this illustrious family does not sink into poverty. Kabír Khán, the son of Ismail Khán, is an Honorary Police Officer of the Jhang district; Jahán Khán, brother of Ahmad Khán and uncle of Ismáil Khán, holds a jagir at Chund Bharwána and Budhi Thatti worth Rs. 887, an old grant of Ranjít Singh to his father, confirmed in perpetuity by the British Government."

Jahán Khán died on 9th November 1870.

The farmers of the Jhang district revenue. The names of the persons who farmed the revenues of the Jhang province, including Pindi Bhattián, Farúka, and Sayadwála, and excluding Kálowál and Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur, from Sambat 1873 to 1903, are given below:—

Sambat.	A, D.	Name of Farmer.	Contract money.
1			Rs.
1873	1816	Suján Rái	9 75 000
1874	1817	Sukh Diál	4 00 000
1875-76	1818-19	Jowála Singh	1,00,000
1877	1820	Sukh Diál	4,10,000
1878	1821	Sáhib Ditta and Shám Singh	4,00,000
1879	1822	Shám Singh, Jowála Dás, Lálá Rám	4,20,000
1880	1823	Jassa Singh, Daulat Rám, Shám Singh	3,25,000
1881	1824	Bákar and Jalla Bharwána	4 40 000
1882	1825	Shám Singh, Abdul Rahmán	4,35,000
1883	1826	Afzal Khán, Jowáhir Singh	4,40,000
1884	1827	Jiwand Singh	. \ 3,40,000
1885	1828	Máháráj Attar Singh, Bhola Náth	4,45,000
1886	1829	Dal Singh, Devi Bakhsh	4,55,000
1887	1830	Dal Singh	
1888	1831	Rám Káur of Jhang	. 4,67,000
	1832-44	Díván Sáwan Mal	
1901-1903	1845-47	Díván Múl Ráj	
1	1847-48	Rallia Rám	
1904	1848-49	First Summary Settlement by Mr. Cock	s.

The amount of revenue shown includes the Chabútra tax, and is an approximation on returns furnished by Kánúngos. Too much credit should not be attached to the figures. The Jhang province contained the tract that constituted the old district of Jhang. The Kálowál ilàka belonged to Bhera, and those of Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur to the province of Mooltan. Rája Guláb Singh held the farm of Kálowál for many years, and the severity of his exactions was such that his name is still execrated. Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur were under Sáwan Mal. The results of Sáwan Mal's rule on the welfare of this district will be discussed with the past fiscal history of the district (Chap. V, Sec. B). For an account of his rise to power, his administration of the Mooltan

province, and his death, pp. 272-285 of the "Punjab Chiefs," should be consulted. There also will be found the history of Múl Ráj's short pro-consulship and his downfall. Some further historical details will be found in the notices of the leading tribes in Chapter III, Section C.

Before the treaty of Bhairowál, the British Government undertook to maintain the authority of the Lahore Darbár, and to administer the affairs of the Punjab during the minority of the young Máhárája Dalíp Singh. Officers from the Company's service were selected to carry out a summary settlement of the land revenue. The Jhang district, with the exception of the Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur ilàkas, had been occupied in 1846 by the Darbár during the contest between the Lahore Government and Múl Ráj; and when peace was made it was retained, although it had previously formed a portion of the Mooltan province and been held by Sáwan Mal. The two excepted ilàkas, however, continue to form a part of the territory held by Múl Ráj. Upon the annexation of the Punjab in 1849 the whole district became British territory. The area comprised within the Jhang district as first constituted is described below.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report:—

"Jhang is a wild rural district, chiefly in the Bár above described, and tenanted by the wild races, of whom mention has just been made. The population is comparatively scanty. The treasury guard was a Company of the 16th Native Infantry Grenadiers. It was a mere hindrance; and at the request of Captain Hawes, Officiating Deputy Commissioner, was withdrawn to its head-quarters at Lahore, where it Two parties of mutineers were destroyed in this was disarmed. district,—one numbering 10 men of the 14th Native Infantry; the second, the party of the 9th Irregular Cavalry. The villagers rendered good service in tracking this last detachment; but when on the 17th September the Bar tribes rose, the villagers of this district maintained but a doubtful neutrality. Communications between Jhang and Lahore were cut off. For some time great anxiety was felt at Lahore as to what had occurred there. It was known that many of the minor police stations had been rifled, and that the tribes around were all in rebellion. In a few days, however, Captain Hockin's force, 250, of the 17th Irregular Cavalry, was thrown into the disturbed region; it was supported by a party of the Leiah and Gujránwála New Levies, while Major Chamberlain, with a force from Mooltan, advanced on Jhang from the south. Mr. McMahon, Extra Assistant Commissioner, was sent out to Kot Kamália in the Gugera district with a party of police horse; but it had been pillaged before his arrival, and he was soon after recalled by Captain Hawes. Lieutenant Lane, Assistant Commissioner, had command of the Leiah Levy; while Captain Hawes joined Major Chamberlain's force, and remained with it as Civil Officer till the defeat of the rebels at Kamália some time after. After Captain Hawes' return to Jhang, Lieutenant Lane was detached to Shorkot, where he did excellent service in apprehending rebels and seizing their cattle."

The old fiscal divisions of the Sikhs were to a certain extent retained within the tahsil boundaries. The old tahsils were three besides the Peshkari of Uch. Chiniot was much the same as

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it is now, minus the villages that came over from Sháhpur. Tahsíl Jhang lay on the left bank of the Chenáb, and included the country from the Chiniot boundary down to the Rávi, and also the lowest portion of the Vichanh known as the Massan taalukah. West of the Chenáb was the Peshkári of Uch, bounded by the Garh Máhárája iláka on the south, and extending up to the right bank of the Jhelam to a few miles beyond Máchhiwál. The Kádirpur tahsíl contained the remaining country on the right bank of the Jhelam, and between the Jhelam from the Massan taalukah to the Sháhpur boundary. The sub-divisions into taalukahs were as follows in the old tahsíls:—

Chiniot.	Jhang.	Kádirpur.	Uch.
Sipra.	Wára.	Márí,	Chauntra.
Chiniot.	Jhang.	Kot Shákir.	Uch.
Kurk.	Gilmála.	Kot Isa Sháh.	Nekokára.
Bhowana.	Shorkot.	Kádirpur.	
Kálowál.	Massan.	Bharmi Wárá.	ļ
Ahmadnagar,	l	Sháh Jíwana.	Ì
Lálián.		Bhattián.	1

Subsequent changes of boundary.

At first the Jhang district, compared with the present boundaries, contained the Farúka taalukah in the Chaj Doáb, transferred to Sháhpur in 1854, and a considerable strip of country on the right bank of the Rávi, between the present boundary and that river, transferred to the Mooltan district about the same time; and did not contain the Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur ilákas transferred from Muzaffargarh in 1861, and the Kálowál iláka transferred from Sháhpur in the same year. The existing division of the district into the three tahsíls of Shorkot, Jhang and Chiniot dates from this period. In 1880 five villages on the Rávi were transferred from Shorkot to the Sarai Siddhu tahsíl of Mooltan in order to give the Deputy Commissioner of the latter district complete control of the Rávi sailáb.

List of District officers. The following is a list of the Deputy Commissioners who have held charge of the district since annexation:—

LIST OF DEPUTY COMMISSIONERS FROM ANNEXATION

From	То	Names.
May, 1849 March, 1850	February, 1850	G. W. Hamilton
March, 1852	February, 1851	J. Clarke.
February, 1853	January, 1853 March, 1853	G. W. Hamilton.
April, 1853	T. 10*#	J. W. Bristow. H. Monekton.
February, 1857	January, 1857 March, 1858	H. S. Hawes.
April, 1858	December, 1858	C. P Elliot.
January, 1859		W. G. Davies.
May, 1859		A. Levien.
August, 1859	May, 1861	W. E. Blyth.
June, 1861	August, 1861	F. Macnaughten.
September, 1861	October, 1862	W. B. Jones.
November, 1862		W. M. Lane.
January, 1863		W. E. Blyth.
April, 1863	March, 1864	H. D. Dwyer.
April, 1864	April, 1866	W. M. Lane.
May, 1866	17th May, 1870	R. J. D. Ferris.
18th May, 1870	25th August, 1873	G. E. Wakefield.
26th August, 1873	21st September, 1875	T. W. Tolbort.

From	То	Names.
21st January, 1878 8th March, 1880 14th January, 1882	8th May, 1882	T. W. Tolbort, A. Harcourt. G. M. Ogilvie. R. Bartholomew.

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List of District officers.

Some conception of the development of the district since it came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. II, which gives some of the leading statistics for five-yearly periods, so far as they are available; while most of the other tables appended to this work give comparative figures for the last few years. In the case of Table No. II, it is probable that the figures are not always strictly comparable, their basis not being the same in all cases from one period to another. But the figures may be accepted as showing in general terms the nature and extent of the advance made.

The following figures show the revenue of the district under certain heads in 1851, 1861, 1871 and 1881:—

IMPERIAL REVENUE, 1851-52, 1861-62, 1871-72, 1881-82.

Year.	Proper. Fluctuating.	Excisc (spirits). Opium and drugs	Stamps. Miscella-neous.
1861-62 1871-72	Rs. Rs. 2,40,635 11,418 3,10,402 27,668 2,69,650 1,50,520 3,14,668 1,29,805	Rs. Rs. Rs. Rs.	Rs. Rs. 11,271 2,443 26,435; 29,177 56,0:11

Development since annexation.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of population.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tahsil and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families; while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881:—

Deventers of total name	lation	Persons				90.64
recentage of total popu	Males					91.02
Percentage of total popu who live in villages		Females				90.20
Average rural population				•••		474
Average total population			town			519
Number of villages per 1	00 squ	are miles				13
Average distance from v	illage t	o village,	in miles			2.98
			Total pe	opulatio	n	69
	Total a	rea 1	Rural p	opulatio	on	63
Density of population	O., 1+:	+ 0.7 amaa	Total po	pulatio	n	615
	$egin{array}{c} ext{Cultivated area} \left\{ egin{array}{c} ext{Tot.} \ ext{Culturable area} ight. \left\{ egin{array}{c} ext{Tot.} \ ext{Rur} \end{array} ight.$		Rural p	opulatio	on	557
1.	C14	bla anaa	Total p	pulatio	n	86
(')	Cultura	ioie area j	Rural p	opulatio	on	78
No. 1	1:			Villag	es	1.22
Number of resident families per occupied house $\begin{cases} Villages \\ Towns \end{cases}$						1.94
() illa con						5.74
Number of persons per occupied house Towns						8.05
(V:U						4.71
Number of persons per re	sident	iamiy	1	Towns	s	4.14
				•		

As has already been stated, more than three-fifths of the whole district consists of arid steppes scantily inhabited by nomad pastoral tribes, and almost wholly deserted at certain seasons of the year; and as most of this area has been returned as culturable, the figures for density of population, both upon total and upon culturable area, are in a manner misleading.

Migration and birthplace of population. Table No. VI shows the principal districts and States with which the district has exchanged population, the number of migrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by tahsíls. Further details will be found in Table No. XI and in supplementary Tables C to H of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole

Proportion per mille of total population.

	Gain.	Loss.
Persons	 48	91
Males	49	101
Females	48	78

subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the same report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 18,989, of whom 10,381 are males and 8,608 females. The number of people born in the district and living

in other parts of the Punjab is 35,688, of whom 21,628 are males and 14,060 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth-place :-

		PROPORTION PER MILLE OF RESIDENT POPULATION.							
Born in	Rure	Rural Population.		Urban Population		Total Population.			
Born in	Malcs.	Pemales.	Persons.	Wales	Females.	Persons.	Males.	remales.	Ретьопя
The district The province India Asia	., 954 gua 1,009 1,000	1,000	954 999 1,000 1,00 €	953 995	996	991 997			953 997 999

The following remarks on the migration to and from the Jhang district are taken from the Census Report of 1881:-

"Jhang is a singularly backward district. Though population is sparse, much of the area consists of arid plains without irrigation of any sort, and the population is really dense in proportion to the cultivated area. Consequently it gives population to every district in the list except Gujránwála, and the emigrants are nearly twice as numerous as the immigrants. The emigration is particularly large to Shahpur, Montgomery, Muzaffargarh, and Mooltan, four neighbouring districts in which canal irrigation has greatly developed of late years. The immigration probably consists to a great extent of people who have left the steppes of the neighbouring districts for the valleys of the two rivers which run through the district, and the moderate proportion of males would seem to show that the migration is permanent; though with the nomad tribes of the bar who travel with their families, the test is perhaps of less value than elsewhere, and it is not impossible that many of the immigrants are graziers with their herds who have come to pasture in the Jhang steppes. On the other hand, the former explanation is supported by the fact that the Mooltan bár, the only one which is separated from Jhang by a river, has sent hardly any immigrants."

The figures in the statement below show the population of Increase & decrease the district as it stood at the three enumerations of 1855, 1868 and 1881:-

	Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.
Actuals.	1855	251,769	139,149	112,620	44
	1868	347,043	195,053	153,940	61
	1881	305,296	214,382	180,914	69
Percent-	1868 on 1855	137-8	138·7	136:7	199
	1881 on 1868	113-9	111·0	117:5	114

The figures of 1868 are corrected for transfer of territory; but the district as it stood in 1855 did not include the tracts transferred from Shahpur and Muzaffargarh in 1861. The population of these tracts by the Census of 1855 is said to have been 47,285, which raises the population with which comparison must be made to 299,062, and reduces the percentage of increase

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Migration and birthplace of population.

of population.

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.

Increase & decrease of population.

between 1855 and 1868 to 13.8, or precisely the same as that between 1868 and 1881. So again the density of population per square mile in 1855 would be 52.35, instead of 44.

It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 81 for males, 125 for females, and 101 for persons, at which rate the male population would be doubled in 85.9 years, the female in 55.9 years, and the total population in 69.2 years. Supposing the same rate of increase to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be, in hundreds:—

Year.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Year.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1881 1882 1883 1884 1885	395,3 399,3 403,3 407,4 411,5 415,6	214,4 216,1 217,9 219,6 221,4 223,2	180,9 183,2 185,5 187,8 190,1 193,5	1887 1888 1889 1890 1891	419,8 424,0 428,3 432,6 436,9	225,0 226,8 228,7 230,5 232,4	194,9 197,3 199,8 202,3 204,8

There seems to be no reason why the rate of increase should not be sustained. Part of the apparent increase is probably due to increased accuracy of enumeration, a good test of which is afforded by the percentage of males to persons, which was 55.26 in 1855, 55.54 in 1868, and 54.23 in 1881. But, as already shown at page 41, the district has, during the lifetime of the present generation, lost much population by migration to neighbouring districts consequent upon the extension of canal irrigation in them, notwithstanding which the extraordinary healthiness of these plains of small rain-fall has enabled the people to increase their numbers more rapidly than in most of the Punjab districts. The urban population has actually decreased since 1868, the numbers living in 1881 for every 100 living in 1868 being 96 only. This is partly due to alteration in the boundaries of the Jhang-Maghiana Municipality, 71 small hamlets having been excluded between 1868 The population of individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI.

Tahsil.		Total por	oulation.	Percentage of population of
		1868.	1881.	1881 on that of 1868.
Jhang Chiniot Shorkot	::	151,822 109,427 85,794	171,713 128,241 95,342	113 117 111
Total district		347,043	395,296	114

Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various tahsils is shown in the margin. Changes of boundary make it impossible to compare the figures for 1855 by tahsils.

Births and deaths.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881, and the births for 1880 and 1881, the only two years during which

-	 	
	1880.	1881.
Males Females Persons	 17 14 31	19 16 35

births have been recorded in rural districts. The distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables Nos. XIA and XIB. The annual birthrates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, were as shown in the margin. The figures

below show the annual death-rates per mille since 1868, calculated Chapter III, A. on the population of that year :-

Statistical. Births and deaths.

			1868.	1869.	1870.	1871.	872.	1873.	874.	875.	876.	877.	878.	879.	1880.	1881.	verage.
			=			=				7							<u> </u>
Males			9	16	18	13	17	18	15	18	16			13	19	18	15
Females			8	16	17	13	18	18	14	18	16				18	19	15
Persons	••	••	9	16	18	13	17	18	14	18	16	13	12	13	19	18	15

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving; but the figures always fall short of the fact, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and especially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881, which will be found at page 56 of that report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death-rates in individual towns as are available will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great details in Tables Nos. IV to VII of the Census Report of 1881, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII, appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for tahsils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures :--

5--10 10---15 4-5 15-20 0-1 1 - 22--3 3-4 1,656 1,609 1,018 695 370 Persons 228 325 356 356 359 216 307 336 1,600 708 Males Females 242 386 1,752 1,620 50---55 30-35 35-40 40---45 45--50 55---60 20-25 25--30 791 443 659 303 764 684 723 Persons 447 646 323 556 155 835 Males 642 682 Females 438 676 279 469 118 680 821

On the subject of age, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his District Report on the Census of 1881:—

"I do not think much reliance can be placed on the ages recorded. The large mass of the population is quite incapable of estimating age. A zamindár's ideas are limited to childhood, youth, manhood, and old age. The figures in most instances only record the result of the combined judgment of the zamíndár and the enumerator. Men evidently about 30 years of age often in court state themselves to be 12 or 15 years old. As soon as their beards turn grey, they go to the other extreme and make themselves out much older than they are. I have found that grey-beards Age.

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Sex.

always exaggerate their age. The proportion of young children seems very high, and leads me to suppose that the ages of children have been generally understated."

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is

Popula	tion.	Villages.	Towns.	Total.
All religions	{ 1855 1868 1881	 5,446	 5,203	5,526 5,564 5,423
Hindús Sikhs Musalmáns	1881 1881 1881	5,413 5,728 5,449	5,149 5,229	5,347 5,735 5,435

shown in the margin. The decrease since 1868 is almost certainly due to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the Census of 1881, the number of females per 1,000

males in the earlier years of life was found to be as follows:-

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindús.	Musalmáns
0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5	938 946 954 953 914	849 940 941 	956 948 960

Civil condition.

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period. The Deputy Commissioner thus discussed the figures in his Census Report:—

"The number of single persons exceeds that of married by 38 per cent. Calculated on the whole population, the proportion of single, married and widows is as follows:—

 Single
 ...
 ...
 ...
 53 per cent.

 Married
 ...
 ...
 ...
 39
 ,...

 Widows and widowers
 ...
 ...
 8
 ...

"The large proportion of single persons is chiefly among the rural classes, and is accounted for by the fact that the agricultural classes of this district do not marry their children till they are full grown and fit for a grown man's work. A man is usually 25 and a woman 20 before marriage takes place. Indeed, there are examples of women not being married till they are rather advanced in years and reach the age of 35 or more. The custom prevails both among Hindús and Muhammadans. The case with the townspeople is, however, quite different. The Hindús especially marry their children at a very early age, and would expose themselves to the censure of their family and brotherhood if they did not do so, especially with regard to girls. Ordinarily a child among the Hindús is married or bethrothed as soon as small-pox is over. The Muhammadans are rather indifferent, but nevertheless do not keep their children unmarried for a long time. Married males and married females are 49 and 51 per cent. respectively. The surplus of females is accounted for by the fact that both Hindús and Muhammadans in some cases marry more than one wife. Of widowers and widows taken together, the widowers and widows are 31 and 69 per cent. respectively. The large surplus in widows is attributed to the fact that by custom and religion Hindú widows cannot remarry. This custom, originally Hindú and almost unknown in Muhammadan countries, has spread to the upper class of Muhammadans to some extent. But among the zamindárs a widow is treated as a chattel, and remarried to the nearest of kin of her deceased husband.

" Polyandry is unknown in this district. Polygamy is practised by Polyandry and polyboth Muhammadans and Hindús, though to a smaller extent by the Muhammadan law allows four wives at a time. Rich zamíndárs in this district marry as many as three or even four, and persons even in poor circumstances do not uncommonly marry a second wife. Thus there are not a few pholis (weavers), dyers (rangrez), blacksmiths, charigars (bangle-makers) in Jhang and Maghiana who have two wives. Rich Hindús marry another wife mostly when the existing wife is barren. A poor Hindú, though childless, seldom marries a second wife.

"Infanticide is unknown in this district. The population is for the most part Muhammadan, who, as already pointed out, do not marry their daughters at an early age, and have therefore no pressing demand for money to make provision for marriage expenses. But the excess of males over females, I think, points to the conclusion that often female children are less carefully nurtured, and that the mortality among them is therefore greater. The increase of females since 1868 seems to show that daughters are now more carefully nurtured.* They are not actually ill-treated, but their birth is often considered a misfortune; and it is easy to understand that neglect, without actual ill-usage, increases the death-rate."

Infirmity.	Males,	Females
Insane Blind Deaf and dumb Leprous	15 53 16 2	9 71 10

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deafmutes, and lepers in the district in each religion. The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables Nos. XIV to XVII of the Census Report for 1881 give further details of the age and religion of the

In the district Census Report for 1881, the Civil Surgeon wrote as follows on the subject:-

"A large proportion of the blind as seen in this district have lost their sight from old neglected inflammation, or inverted evelashes. Some have lost it during an attack of small-pox, and some from cataract. Technically speaking, the largest proportion of the blind are seen with opacities of the cornea or entire disorganization of the eyeball, next to it with glaucoma and amaurisis, and next with cataract. Women are more blind than men. More women are seen suffering from inverted eyelashes and consequent opacity of cornea than men. Generally this is the first stage in the progress towards to al blindness. Smoke and heat of the kitchen has most probably something to do with the greater proportion of blindness in the women. Deaf and dumb and lunatics are more common in the Chiniot tahsil than in the other sub-divisions, amongst Muhammadans than amongst Hindús and Sikhs, and in towns than in villages. I am unable to give any explanation of these facts; but I may mention here that the Chiniot tahsil is (especially the town and some villages towards the north-east, as well as some villages of the Shahpur district in that direction) remarkable for the prevalence of goitre."

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

gamy.

Infanticide

Infirmities

^{*} The increase is partly due to increased accuracy of enumeration. - Editor.

Chapter III, B.
Social and religious life.

The climate of Jhang is described at pages 12 and 13. The excessive dryness of the climate, sanitation and the sparseness of the population counteract entirely the evil sanatory habits of the population. Manure heaps and filthy hollows are close to every village, and there is an entire absence of any conservancy arrangements. These evils, which in a worse climate would lead to the outbreak and spread of serious diseases, in Jhang only succeed in slightly injuring the general health at particular seasons. Cholera is almost unknown.

European and Eurasian population. The figures given below show the composition of the Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned their birth-place and their language as European. They are taken from Tables Nos. IIIA, IX and XI of the Census Report for 1881:—

	Details.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
Raccs of Christian population.	Europeans and Americans Eurasians Native Christians Total Christians	8 1 	2	10 1
Language.	English Other European languages Total European languages	7 7	3	10
Birth.place.	British Isles Other European countries Total European countries	7 7	1	8 8

But the figures for the races of Christians, which are discussed in Part VII of Chapter IV of the Census Report, are very untrustworthy; and it is certain that many who were really Eurasians returned themselves as Europeans.

SECTION B.-SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Villages and houses.

It is only in the Chiniot tahsíl and the better cultivated portions of the other tahsíls that all the inhabitants of a village live at one hamlet or village. They prefer living at their separate wells. Down south there are many villages that have no village site whatever. Each proprietor lives at his well. The well of the lambardár, and perhaps one other, will have a small hamlet growing up round it, consisting of the huts of the proprietors and his tenants and those of a shop-keeper and a few Kamíns. There are hardly any strong solidly-built villages such as are seen further east. There are four kinds of houses:—

(1). Kothi or Kothri, a square mud house, containing sometimes one and sometimes two rooms, sometimes with a front room piráh, and sometimes without; the roof is also of mud, and flat.

(2). Sáhl, the commonest kind, consists of four mud walls, over which a roof of thatch is thrown, supported on an arrangement of beams and rafters that keeps the centre of the thatch highest, and allows the sides to bend down and overlap the side mud walls. The end walls are built up to meet the thatch. The thatch is made of sar grass strengthened by káná bands, and is often in one piece. The thatch is called chhappar, and the beams which support it, pat and lara. A new sáhl, with the floor sanded and sprinkled with fresh water, is cool and comfortable.

(3). Kurhá is a cabin of thatch or screens. There are several modes of arranging them. One of the simplest is to take a piece thatch and prop it up by three sticks, one in the centre and one in the middle of each end. The sides of the thatch fall down on either side to the ground. The one open end is blocked up by a

screen, and the other serves as the doorway.

(4). Pakhí is simply a moveable roof of till. It is most used by graziers in the Bár. It is propped up by four or five poles, and under it the family lives. There are no walls to it of any description.

Besides the villages proper, there are jhoks, ráhnás, and bhainís. Jhok is the name generally applied to the head-quarters of camel-owners, and ráhna to that of cattle graziers. A ráhna is the name applied to all the temporary abodes of large collections of graziers in the Bár. Bhaíni is another name applied to the head-quarters of a herd.

Among the appendices to Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report will be found a comprehensive list of all the household furniture used by zamíndárs. What a man uses depends entirely upon the position he holds or thinks that he ought to hold. It is a well-established fact that zamíndárs use very much more expensive articles than they did 20 or 25 years ago. Formerly all their utensils were of earthenware, except a few indispensable metal articles. Now a well-to-do zamíndár has almost everything in metal. English crockery and glass tumblers are also coming in fashion.

The poor zamíndár's clothes are a white cloth tied round his loins, and reaching petticoat-like half way below the knee, called majhla; and another white cloth thrown over his shoulders, called chaddar. Another piece of thin cloth, pag, is twisted round his head, leaving the top bare, and, with a pair of shoes, completes his attire. In the cold weather he wears in addition a blanket, kamal. In Chiniot even the better zamíndárs, zaildárs, and such like, do not wear anything more, not even a kurta. Southwards almost every lambardár wears a kurta in addition to the chaddar and majhla. Some of the lung's worn in this district are of extremely pretty check patterns, the ground being generally white. White is the proper colour for the turban. In the Chiniot tahsil the zamíndárs who are connected with the Bár are fond of wearing a turban of dark cloth with a check pattern, or only stripes of red or vellow running through it. This is very short in length, and is twisted and worn in two or three folds round the head. It gives a marauding look to the wearer. Only a few men in the district

Chapter III, B.

Social and religious life.

Villages and houses.

Nomad camps.

Household furniture.

Men's dress.

Chapter III, B.

Social and religious life.

Women's dress.

affect a European style in their costume, and they are properly disliked by their neighbours.

The women of the poor zamindár class wear the mailla. always white in colour, tied in a slightly different way from the men. It is worn longer and tighter, especially about the hips. Trousers, pàijàmàs, are tabooed. Certain classes of women in the towns wear them, but not a single zamíudár woman. A boddice (choli) and a chaddar worn over the head are the other garments. The choli is usually brightly coloured. The chaddar is either white or of some dark sombre colour. Young unmarried women sometimes wear bright coloured chauldars, but this is seldom As with the men so with the women, there is considerable variety in the quality of the clothes worn by individuals of different positions. Increased prosperity has led to increased expenditure. The above description refers to the ordinary clothes worn by zamindars only. The Hindus, men and women, belonging to the towns are but little engaged in agriculture, and dress very differently.

Ornaments.

The wearing of ornaments is almost entirely confined to the women. A man is contented with his signet, chhàp, and perhaps one other ring chhalla, and an amulet, bahatta, also ornamental, tied just above the elbow. As for women's ornaments, their name is legion. Those worn by almost every zamindárni are hangan, a plain bracelet; válián, earrings; chhalla, a plain finger ring; hassi, a necklet; bahatta, an amulet, similar to those worn by men. Nose rings are very seldom worn.

Food.

The food of the nomad population of the Bár is very different from that of the agricultural residents of villages near the rivers. It is estimated that a resident of the Bár consumes only one-third the quantity of food grain eaten by the ordinary cultivator, and Mr. Steedman's opinion is that the proportion is still smaller. One is constantly told that sometimes the grazier for days goes without any food other than milk and substances made from milk. Milk is, it may be almost said, the staple food of the district. The ordinary grazier as often as not, instead of making bread for his evening meal, simply mixes his flour in the milk and warms it over a fire. In the morning he has a draught of buttermilk, and later on a small chapáti, and another drink of buttermilk. Milk is usually drunk with the evening meal. The table below gives the food of an agriculturist for the different months:—

Months.					Food.
Chet	•••		•••		Chapatis of barley, peas, and wheat flour. Buttermilk with morning and milk with evening meal. Green gram pods and carrots are also eaten.
Baisákh					Wheat chapatis, and vegetables.
Jeth			•••		Wheat chapatis, pilù berries, melons, vegetables, buttermilk, and milk as before.
Hár, Sáv	van, I	Badrú, .	Assú	•••	Wheaten chapairs, melons in Hár, buttermilk and milk as before.
		ar, P		lágh, 	Wheat, jowar, bajra, and maize chapatis.

Total ...1,200

Chetar middle of

Zamíndárs have two meals a day, the morning meal from 10 to 11 o'clock, the evening one from 6-30 to 8 at night. The evening meal is taken later in the cold weather than in the hot. The morning meal remains at much the same time all the year round. When the pilú berries are in, only half the ordinary quantity of grain is eaten. When turnips are ready, one-fourth of the usual amount of bread. Well-to-do zamíndárs live upon wheaten bread, The Siáls are much given to liquor. rice, and flesh.

The average annual consumption of food grains by a family of five persons, two of whom are children, Seers. was estimated for the Famine Report at ... 480 ... 200 Wheat 30 maunds in the villages, and 33 maunds Gram 120 Jowár in the towns. The details for the villages China ... 160 are as shown in the margin. For a family Barley .. 120 Dál of sorts and other in the town, add to the above 61 maunds ... 120 grain ... of wheat and half a maund more of dál and miscellaneous grain, and cut out the

The first month in the year is Chetar and the last Phagan. Modes of reckoning They are given in order below, with corresponding English months. The spelling gives the local pronunciation :—

March to middle of

chína.

Chapter III, B. Social and religious life. Food.

Onetal initiale of	maich to n	mune or	April.
Visákh "	April	,,	May.
Jeth ,,	May	,,	June.
Hár "	June	,,	July.
Sáwan ,,	July	,,	August.
Badrú "	August	,,,	September.
Assú "	September	,,	October.
Kateh ,,	October	,,	November.
Maghar ,,	November	,,	December.
Poh ,,	December	"	January.
Mágh "	January	,,	February.
Phagan ,,	February	,,	March.
		••	

The days are divided into eight pahrs (pronounced pahur) of 3 hours each. The following are recognised times of day:-

	As ts	ED BY				
Muhamn	nadans.	Hindús.		English equivalent.		
Adhí rát Pichhlí rát Dhammi we		Adhí rat Pichhlí rát None		Midnight. 3 A. M. The last hour of the night before		
Namáz welá Deh Ubhre Chha welá		Parbhát welá Vadde welá None		dawn. Daybreak. Sunrise. Two hours or an hour-and-a-half after		
Roti welá Dopahr Peshín Lureshín Nadveshín Dígar		Do. Vaddí Peshín None Do.	••	sunrise. Bread time, 9-10 A. M. Midday. 3 P. M. 4 P. M. 5 P. M. Half an hour before sunset.		
Namáshán Khuftán Sotá welá		Sandhián welá Sota wela Pahr rat		Just after sunset. Bed-time, when all the stars hore come out. An hour after bed-time, 9-11 f. M.		

Chapter III, B.
Social and
religious life.
Religion.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each tahsíl and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the Census of 1881, and Table No. XLIII gives similar figures for towns.

Religion.	Rural	Urban	Total
	popula-	popula-	popula-
	tion.	tion.	tion.
Hindú	1,357	4,397	1,642
Sikh	79	175	88
Musalmán	8,564	5,425	8,270

Sect.	Rural popula- tion.	Total popula- tion.
Sunnís	962.6	963.6
Shíahs	37-2	36.2
Others and unspecified	0.2	0.2

Tables Nos. III, IIIA, of the Report of that Census give further details on the subject. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures must be taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of Hindús, are fully discussed in Part I, Chapter IV of the Census Report. The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalmán population by sect is shown in the margin. Shíahs are unusually numerous

in Jhang, a fact due to the influence of the Shíah Kuraishís of Shorkot and Hassú Balel, and of the Sayads of Uch who are connected with the famous Sayad family of Belot in Dera Ismáil Khán. They are of the most bigoted type. They observe the *Muharram* most strictly, abstaining from all luxuries for the first ten days of the month, and on the 10th they accompany the *Táziahs* bare-headed and barefooted. They throw dust on their heads and beat their breasts with extreme violence, and allow neither Hindú nor Muhammadan to approach the *Táziah* without baring his head and removing his shoes.

Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any disquisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by tahsíls can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. But the landowning classes and the village menials are almost wholly Musalmán, the Hindú and Sikh religions being practically confined to the mercantile classes and their priests. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the Census Report of 1881:—

"The Pirohats or Hindú priests are to the whole Hindú population as 1 to 133.3, the Muhammadan priests to the Muhammadan population as 1 to 14,285. The Hindú priests residing in the district are not the sole pastors of their people. Large numbers from Gujránwála, Lahore and Amritsar pay periodical visits to their disciples. In the same way the greater number of the Muhammadan population are the followers of the Makhdúms of Baháwal Hak in Mooltan, or worship at Hujra Shah Mukím and Pak Pattan, the seat of the patron saint of

the Siáls, Báwa Faríd. The Makhdúms of Mooltan exercise very great influence over the Muhammadan population of the district. When a Makhdúm comes to pay his periodical visits to Jhang, hundreds are seen flocking around him and paying him homage. But 'he district is not without its own Makhdúms, who have followers in this district as well as the neighbouring districts of Dera Ismáil Khán, Dera Gházi Khán, Mooltan and Montgomery. The family of Makhdúm Karm Husain and the Uch Sayads are very much revered by the people."

A considerable number of fairs are held in this district during the year. A list of the more important is given below:—

Place where fair is hel	d.	Person in whose honour it i	is held.	Date.
1. Shah Jiwana 2. Pirkot Sadhana 3. Athara Hazara 4. Pir Abdul Rahman 5. Kakki Kathia 6. Bhamrala 7. Hassu Balel 8. Mari 9. Rodu Sultan		Shah Jiwana Pir Abdul Kadir Pir Tajuddin Pir Abdul Rahman Pir Kaha Haji Kasim Bali Shah Balel Shah Sakhira Fakir Gul Muhammad		27th Baisakh. 3rd Friday in Chet. 3rd Thursday in Chetar. 9th Zalhaj. 27th Har. 10th Har. 7th Katik.
0. Jhang 1. Sadik Nihang 2. Massan 3. Bulla Patowana 4. Kirana		Hir and Ranja Shah Sadik Nihang Juda Kahana Mian Lal Kanju Sidh Nath	••••••	1st Magh. Maghar. Dasehra. 12th Baisakh. Chetar.

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of the principal languages current in the district separately for each tahsil and for the whole district. More detailed information

1	angu	Proportion per 10,000 of population.		
Hindusta				8
	ш	•••	•••	, Ç
Bágri				1
Punjabi				9,981
Jatki		•••		2
Pashto	•••			7
All India	n lan		9,999	
Non-Indi			1	
-				

will be found in Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1881, while in Chapter V of the same report the several languages are briefly discussed. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000 of the population by language, omitting small figures. Many of the people shown as speaking

Punjabi might more properly have been returned as speaking Jatki, the language or dialect of the south-western plains of the Punjab. There are several dialects in the district. West of the Jhelam a dialect resembling that of residents of the Thal is used. South of Shorkot a patois resembling that of Mooltan is spoken. The Chiniot zamíndárs from the north of the tahsíl have quite a different accent from those further south. The patois of the Bár is the most uncouth of all. Among the appendices to Mr. Steedman's Report will be found a list of proverbs and sayings, and also a collection of songs, which will serve to give some slight insight into the language spoken by the people.

The character and disposition of the people is thus described by Mr. Steedman:—

"The people of the Jhang district are a well built, handsome, sturdy race. The Siáls especially furnish many very fine, stalwart men. In their intercourse with European district officers they are frank and open. They betray no signs of timidity or cringing. Many of the

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Social and religious life.

Character and disposition of the people.

older men are often outspoken to the extent of rudeness, but they never mean to be insolent. They are by no means devoid of humour. A good deal of somewhat coarse raillery goes on. A joke or an appositely quoted proverb is much enjoyed. They are very proud of the assistance that they gave us in 1848-49, and again ten years later. A more loyally-disposed set of people I do not think exists in the Punjab. After three years' constant intercourse I find I can reckon among the more influential many friends whom I shall leave with sorrow, and always be glad to meet again. The Káthiás and the Siáls in the Shorkot tahsil are all extremely fond of sport, and word sent round a few days before will bring together all the villagers in the neighbourhood to drive pig. The Chiniot zamindárs have much less go in them than those of Shorkot. The Vichanh zamíndárs may be put in the same class. Hospitality is practised by many, but most are inclined to exaggerate what they do in this way. I have noticed that those who most frequently din into one's ears the expense they are put to in entertainment are at heart the least liberal of all. The leading zamindars of Shorkot are generally men of large property, and they have hitherto been spending considerable sums in drink and licentiousness. In Jhang and Chiniot there are very few zamindárs who drink. The district generally does not bear the best of characters for morality. The Siál tribe is the greatest sinner. There is a difficulty in disposing of the Siál maidens in wedlock, and delayed marriages are accompanied by the same results here as elsewhere."

Tables Nos. XL, XLI and XLII give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and, narcotic stimulants.

Education.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education, as ascertained at the Census of 1881, for each religion and for the total population

		Education.	Rural population.	Total population.	
Males.	{	Under instruction Can read and write	115 542	170 672	
Females.	{	Under instruction Can read and write	4·2 5·2	7·0 6·5	

of each tabsil. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of

each sex according to Census returns. Statistics regarding the attendance at Government and aided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII. The distribution of the scholars at these schools

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians Native Christians Hindús Musalmáns Sikhs Others	 1 1,131 811 69	 146 164 13
Children of agriculturists ,, of non-agriculturists	782 325	

Note. -The last two lines refer to vallage schools only

by religion and the occupations of their fathers, as it stood in 1881-82, is shown in the margin.

Besides these schools there were in 1882 no fewer than 121 Maktabs or Muhammadan indigenous schools, with 1,011 scholars and 41 Pátshálás or Hindú indigenous schools with 601 scholars in the district. The Khatrís and Arorás

among Hindús and the Khojáhs and Siáls among Musalmáns chiefly avail themselves of the means of education; the agriculturalists make but little use of them. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his Census Report of 1881:—"It must not be "forgotten that of the persons shown as 'able to read and write' "not less than nine-tenths are petty shop-keepers who can write "accounts in their books and nothing more." The number of boys that attend school is but a small percentage of the total population. The number of agriculturists returned as scholars appears to be open to suspicion when compared with the relative numbers of Hindús and Muhammadans. As a general rule, Hindús are not agriculturists. They may be small landowners, but their trade or calling is not agriculture.

The pet crime of the district is cattle-lifting. There were 921 non-bailable offences reported during 1879, of which 501, or 55 per cent., were cattle theft. Another favourite offence is running off with another man's wife. Wives are looked upon by ordinary zamíndárs as chattels, things for which a certain sum has been paid, and for which a certain sum may be realised. If his wife elopes, the zamindár suffers injury to his property. His morals are not much offended, nor his self-respect. If he discovers where she is, he does not scruple to take her back, but he insists upon compensation for the loss of her services, and the certain amount of deterioration. If his demands are satisfied, he returns home as if nothing had happened. Cattle-lifting is a pastime to the denizens of the Bar. They do not see anything wrong in it. Any family that owns a herd is constantly losing and gaining animals by theft. The police are seldom called in; the sufferer must be very hopeless when he has recourse to this last resort. What takes place when a man loses an animal, is this. If by following up the tracks the beast is run down among other cattle, or after many days' search the thief is discovered, there are two modes of procedure. The one is an amicable arrangement. The owner of the stolen property discovers himself. The thief admits his claims, and satisfies him by making over other cattle worth considerably more than the stolen ones. The rightful owner is also treated with the greatest consideration until the matter is arranged. The stolen cattle are never given back. To do so might prove inconvenient in the future. The other procedure is different. The stolen property is often discovered in the possession of a family or tribe of influence, or living in a part of the country where the owner is not known, and where he does not think it advisable to seize the cattle or claim them. Instances are known where a claim having been made, the tables have been turned upon the claimant with serious results. He is seized, and a report is made at the nearest thana that he was caught just outside the homestead walking off with two cows, and when the Thánádár comes he will find the cows and captured one's tracks, and as much evidence as he needs. After finding stolen cattle one plan is to send word off to the thana that your stolen cattle have been found. The Thánádár comes, and an arrangement is effected that benefits all alike. There are no arrests. The Thánádár is squared. The complainant discovers that he has made a mistake,

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Social and religious life.

Education.

Crime.

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Social and religious life.

Crime.

and that the cattle are not really his. The accused makes the complainant a handsome present, and he departs. Another plan, and the one perhaps most generally adopted, is to lurk about the homestead where the stolen cattle are, and carry off at night an equal number to those that were lost. So long as the Bár people prey upon themselves, not much harm is done, but when they raid the cattle and plough bullocks of agriculturists in settled villages. they cannot be punished too severely. It is a fact that several villages lying near the Bár have been at times quite crippled from the loss of their plough oxen. The youth of the Bár show off their prowess by lifting the finest animals they hear of. Stolen property in Jhang slang is known as rat jam, "born of the night." Several lines (rassa) for forwarding stolen cattle run from this district to Mooltan, Montgomery, Gujránwála and Sháhpur. To forward cattle is rassa lenà. Except pure agriculturists the men of this district are born trackers. In tracking, three or four men join. Each has a cudgel about five feet long. As each foot-print is found, two lines are drawn on the ground before and behind the track, if the tracks are not very clear. Where the tracking is easy, only one line will be drawn, and the trackers follow up the tracks walking at full speed. If the tracking is difficult, one man remains at the last found track, and the others make casts in all directions. Most wonderful feats in tracking are accomplished in this and similarly Evidence as to tracking is too often thrown situated districts. aside as incredible.

Poverty or wealth of the people.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of the commercial and industrial classes. The figures in the

Assessment. 1869-70. 1870-71. 1871-72. Number taxed Amount of tax 759 944 441 7,734 18,408 3,903 Number taxed 330 382 Class II Amount of tax 2,734 8,910 5,456 ٠. Class III .. | Number | Amount of tax 235 931 9,165 126 3,940 Class IV .. | Number taxed Amount of tax Number taxed 115 6,804 Class V 9,332 916 950 Number taxed Total · Amount of tax 11,449 | 52,619 13,414

The figures in the marginshow the working of the income tax for the only three years for which details are available; and Table No. XXXIV gives statistics for the license tax for each year since its imposition. The income tax returns for 1870-71 show a

total of 1,734 persons enjoying incomes above Rs. 500 per annum. In the following year, 950 are returned as having incomes above

		1880	0-81.	1881-82.		
Number of licenses		366	Villages 857	339	988	
Amount of fees	• •	4,975	13,470	4,580	15,270	

Rs. 750. The distribution of licenses granted and fees collected in 1880-81 and 1881-82 between towns of over, and

villages of under 5,000 souls, is shown in the margin. But the numbers affected by these taxes are small. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the

form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case, the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather-workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. The circumstances of the agriculture classes are discussed below at the end of Section D of this Chapter.

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, castes and leading families.

SECTION C.—TRIBES, CASTES AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and Statistics and local tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table distribution of tribes No. IXA shows the number of some of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of them are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Jhang are distinguished by few local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially such families as are important as landowners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following pages; and each caste will be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881. But in these western districts tribe is a far more important element than caste, the latter being little more than a tradition of origin, a Siál often hardly knowing that he is a Rájpút. The Census statistics of caste were not compiled for tahsíls, at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere clans or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and castes are available. But the general distribution of the more important landowning tribes has been broadly described at pages 26, 27, followed by an outline of the history of their colonisation of the district,

and castes.

A tabular statement is given on the next page, indicating Amount of land held the amount of land held by each tribe in proprietary right and the amount of land cultivated by each tribe. Jats and Sials own nearly half the cultivated area between them, and cultivate nearly two-thirds. Besides the two tribes above mentioned, Hindús and Sayads alone hold more than 10 per cent. of the cultivated area. Siáls hold but little property in Chiniot, but are strong in the two other tahsils. Chaddhars are located almost entirely in Chiniot, and so also are the Bhattis. There are no Beloch proprietors in Chiniot. Two-thirds of their property is situate in the Jhang tahsíl. Sayads are large proprietors in Jhang and Chiniot. Much land is held by Jats in all three Muhammadans are strongest in Chiniot, and Hindús in Jhang. The above areas are Settlement figures, and the classification is tribal; while the Census figures of Table No. IX are arranged by caste, and not by tribe. Some tribal details will be found in the following pages.

in proprietary right and cultivated by each tribe.

Chapter III, C. Tribes, castes and leading families.

Amount of land held in proprietary right and cultivated by each tribe.

1 4	r I	rr99	2222	22222	2288
11	Total	15,717 15,717 15,717 99,126 99,126	23,042 23,042 136,091 136,091	11,132 11,132 97,082 97,082	49,891 49,891 3,32,239 3,32,299
16	.eùbniH	710 779 4,341 4,673	3,749 1,314 22,501 9,662	1,568 1,003 12,711 7,403	6,227 3,096 39,553 21,738
15	Afiscellaneous Mu- hammadans.	2,018 1,596 12,911 10,432	981 1,294 5,198 6,474	605 414 5,291 4,024	3,504 3,334 23,403 20,930
14	Kamins.	295 1,489 584 8,016	206 1,669 926 12,151	132 1,229 493 10,430	633 4,387 2,003 30,897
13	Jat.	7,572 8,065 38,682 52,792	4,704 8,128 27,803 50,574	1,690 3,486 12,491 31,734	13,966 19,619 78,976 135,100
12	idsisuu.Ä	: : : :	380 256 2,900 1,724	386 10,139 3,850	1,481 642 13,039 5,574
=	Sayad.	2,675 814 18,425 4,205	2,269 814 17,352 5,299	651 357 5,067 2,606	5,595 1,985 40,844 12,110
10	Pathán.	: : : :	367 387 378	96 91 604 584	1.40 1.51 961 962
6	Beloch,	: : : :	2,734 2,194 16,363 12,106	855 820 8,033 7,137	3,589 5,014 24,396 19,243
s	Rihán,	146 112 1,340 906	: : : :	: : : :	146 112 1,340 906
7	Bhatti.	392 631 7,574 4,491	140 136 1,742 1,226	: : :	532 787 9,316 5,717
9	Летен Я	141 151 830 838	: : : :	::::	144 151 830 838
2	Kathia.	: : : :	: : : :	295 147 3,168 1,404	295 147 3,168 1,404
4	Chaddhar.	1,706 1,950 14,180 11,698	::::	194 127 1,421 1,251	1,900 2,077 15,601 12,949
က	Jais.	59 170 256 1,075	7,835 7,177 40,949 36,197	3,945 3,042 37,664 26,659	11,839 10,389 78,869 63,941
C1	DETAIL.	No. of proprietary holdings ", cultivating ", Acres owned ", cultivated	No. of proprietary holdings ", cultivaturg", Acros owned ", cultivated"	No. of proprietary holdings ", cultivating " Acres owned ", cultivated	No. of proprietary holdings ", cultivating " Acres owned ", cultivated
	TaleaT.	Спічіот.	JHANG.	SHORKOT.	TOTAL OF DISTRICT.

The meaning of the word Jat is exceedingly indefinite in the Jhang district. Mr. Steedman, criticising the classification of the Census of 1868, in which the mass of the population was classed as "Miscellaneous Muhammadans," writes as follows:—

"The Rájpút, Sayad and Beloch tribes excluded, the cultivating and proprietary body consists almost entirely of a vast number of agricultural tribes, each known by a different name, but comprehended within the one universal term Jat. Ethnologically I am not sure of my ground; but if these tribes are not Jats, who are they? They are all converted Hindús. Of this there is no doubt, and all are engaged in agriculture or cattle-grazing. Some of them are recognised as Jats; and in appearance, customs and traditions they do not differ from their unrecognised brethren. For statistical purposes it would be surely a much more useful and convenient arrangement to class these agriculturists as Jats, though they are not true Jats, whatever they may be, but only ploughmen and cattle-graziers."

The principal divisions of the Jats of Jhang, as returned in 1881, are shown below. The figures are rough approximations. The several tribes are described in the following pages:—

SUB-DIVI IONS OF JATS.

Name. Name.		Name.		Number.	Name.		Number.
Awán Ithwál Bhatti Bhutta Thahím Siál Sapra	338 2,874 1,612 640 437	Kharal Langa		298 5,040 673 341	Joyá Dhúdh i Khichi Hiráj		284 366 1,533 1,578 483 847

Note.-Many of these tribes are returned among Rájpúts also.

The great mass of the Rajpút population of Jhang consists of tribes of local importance, such as the Siáls, who are known more commonly by the name of their tribe than by that of their caste. Approximate figures for some of the most important as returned at the Census of 1881 are shown below. The several tribes are noticed in the following paragraphs.

See-divisions of Rajputs.

Name	Number.	Name.	 Number.	Name.	 Number.
Bhatti Bhutt Panwár Janjúá Joyá	3,231 490 1,078	Dhúdhi Siál Kharal Khichi Gondal	 36,374 2,054 983	Khokhar Wattú Hiraj Chaddhar Paolí	 6,605 246 345 13,390 1,244

Note. - Many of these tribes are returned among Jats also.

The Nauls, as has been mentioned before, occupied the lowlands fringing the Chenáb around the site of Jhang before the

Chapter III, C.
Tribes, castes
and leading

families. The Jats.

The Rajputs,

The Nauls.

Tribes, castes and leading families. The Nauls.

Chapter III, C. Siáls. Nothing trustworthy is known about their origin, but their traditions carry their family back to one Dhan, a Rája of Bíkanír, who left his native country and settled at old Jhang. At that time the country was under a dynasty of Brahmin kings. Naul. the ancestor of the Naul tribe, was a son of Dhan. The Siáls for some time after their first arrival were subject to the Nauls and paid tribute through them, but they appear to have always been refractory and rebellious dependants. The Nauls were reduced by the Siáls under the leadership of Mal Khán Chuchkána. The Naul leader was then Todir. They now hold several villages near Jhang and in the Kachhi. Sujáwal is a zaildár ard their headman. He lives at Pakkewála, about three miles from Jhang on the road to Sháhpur. The Nauls prefer cattle-breeding to agriculture, and cattle-lifting to either.

The Bhangus and Mírak Siáls.

The Bhangús are another aboriginal tribe, whose origin is lost in the depths of antiquity, which is another way of saying that they are too stupid or too careless to connect themselves by a fictitious ancestry with some Rájpút Rája or a Muhammadan Emperor. They can give no account whatever about themselves. They were rulers over the Shorkot country before their displacement by the Siáls. Mírak, who founded the chieftainship of Mírak, was a Nithrána Siál, a descendant of Nithar, brother of Mal Khán, the founder of Jhang. He was Díván to the Bhangú ruler, but rose in insurrection against his master, and managed to make himself master of the country. The seat of government was previously Shorkot, but he founded Mírak Siál six miles north, built a fort. and ruled the country from there. At Walidad Khan's reigns, Sultán Bálá, the 4th or 5th in descent from Mírak, was the chief, and was reduced to submission by Walidad Khan. The male line is now extinct. Two female descendants still live in poverty at Mirak, and with them the line ends. The village and fort of Mírak are situate on a promontory of high ground between the lowlands of the present Chenáb valley and a wide depression in which the river flowed long ago, and embosomed in a fine grove of date palms in one of the most picturesque spots in the district.

The Rajoa Sayads.

The Sayads of Rajoá were virtually an independent clan until the reduction of the country by Ranjít Singh. They were once defeated and subdued by Walidad Khan, but he restored the country to them immediately afterwards out of respect for their holy origin. The Rajoa Sayads have always been noted as a brave, manly, military clan, and their independence was probably as much due to their quality as warriors as to the sacred character of their family. They are a branch of the Bukhárí Sayads, the principal Sayad family in this district. Their ancestor was Sháh Daulat, a Sayad fakir, who came from Uch Sayad Jalál in Baháwalpur, and settled in this part of the Punjab. He remained for twelve years in the river Chenáb opposite the village of Thattí Bálá Rája, rapt in religious meditation. The Chenáb contains numerous islands, and it is probable that the fakir, though said to have lived in the Chenáb, used at times to rest himself on dry ground. The next stage in his career was the performance of

many wondrous miracles, and he then left the river and settled at Rajoá where he died, and where his tomb is still to be seen. The fame of the fakir and miracles that he did reached the ears of the emperors of Dehli, and the great Akbar granted him by sanad all the tract round Rajoá, now comprised in the Rajoá estates. He married a Khokhar's daughter. The power and influence of the family steadily increased. The Sayads were never defeated before they suffered a reverse at the hands of Walidad. The story tells us that they stole Walidad's camels, and that Walidad punished them for not restoring them. The Sayads rendered good service in the Mooltan campaign, and were engaged in much sharp fighting with Naráin Singh round Chiniot, in which they lost several men. They were fully rewarded by the British Government. The present heads of the family are Haidar Sháh and Bahádar Sháh, between whom a bitter enmity exists. Fatah Daryá, who holds more than three-fourths of the Rajoá property, is a zaildár, and lives at Kot Amír Sháh. Sayads, with the exception of Bahádar Sháh, are a thriftless, extravagant, careless lot of men, and excessively embarrassed by debt. Bahádar Sháh is rather economical, and has saved money.

Another independent chief of Sayad extraction ruled in what The Latifpur Sayad, is now known as the Shah Jiwana iláka. This Sayad family is not the same as that of Shah Jiwana, though their villages adjoin. The family at some period before the reign of Walidad ruled over a large tract of country. Their only important chief was Latif Sháh, who was a Sayad of Uch Sayad Jalál in Baháwalpur. He first settled at Alipur on the Chenáb, and thence migrated to Bhambrálá, where he founded a small State. The boundaries of the Sayad's rule were the Chenáb and the countries of the chiefs of Massan and Bhairo on the south and west, and Kirána and the Ríhán country on the east. Latif Sháh, proprietor and lambardár of village Latif Shah, is a descendant of his namesake. The family are now well-to-do zamíndárs.

The Khokhars of Nadhágarh and Bhairo were an influential clan in the early days of Jhang history. Besides the two villages above mentioned, the tribe owns many others close by, in the north of the district near Kot Isá Sháh. The Khokhars* derive their descent from Kutab, a descendant of Ali, the son-in-law of the prophet. They apparently came from Arabia in the train of the first Muhammadan invaders. Nadhágarh was founded by one Saláh Khán. The tribe became independent at the breaking up of the Mughal empire. The limits of the Khokhar supremacy were--to the west the Jhelam, to the south Kot Khán and Katiánwáli, to the east the country of the Sayad chief Sháh Latíf, to the north that of the Beloches of Sáhiwál. The Khokhars were in a state of chronic warfare with the Beloches, and Walidad took advantage of a Beloch victory to subdue them and annex their country. Subsequently they revolted, and, aided by their old enemies, the Beloches, gave battle to Walidad's lieutenant, an Aliáná Siál, by name Sharíf Khán. Sharíf Khán defeated the

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Tribes, castes and leading families.

The Rajoá Sayads.

descendants of Pir Fatah Khán.

The Khokhare.

^{*} The Khokhars are, Mr. Steedman believes, a branch of Rajputs. The above information has been taken from the Shahpur Settlement Report.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes, castes
and leading
families.

insurgents, and was given the lands of Kot Khán in jáith, where Kotla Sharífá exists to this day. The Khokhars are among the best of the Jhang zamíndárs. They are hardworking, thrifty agriculturists, not given to crime. The lambardárs of Bhairo and Laú are their chief men.

The Siáls of Massan.

The chief of Massan was a Siál who ruled over the Vichanh. The town of that name was founded by Rái Massan of the Sáhibána branch of the Siáls. Nothing is known of the family except that Walidád subdued them. There are now no representatives of any standing.

The Sayads of Uch.

The Sayads of Uch are the last of the clans of Jhang who can be said to have ever been semi-independent. The family is of recent date. Their founder was a Bilot Sayad, Gul Imám, who wandered across the Thal from his native village on the Indus in the time of Inávatulla Khán. He first settled at Rodú Sultán, a village in the Kachhi, where another fakír of that name had his abode. This fakir became his disciple. The Bilot fakír then took up his residence on one of the high sandhills of the Thal called Sammú-bhir, and commenced to work miracles. In a few years he had obtained so much influence in the neighbourhood that he commenced to construct the Uch fort. Inavatulla is said to have assisted and to have worked as a bricklayer. He certainly held the fakir in great esteem, as he made over to him a number of villages in jágír. Gul Imám seems to have been a man of much ability and large ideas. Besides the three castles in Uch called Chándná, Hazára and Soní, he built forts at Sihda Daulúána, Máchhíwál, and Sat. The ruins of the six forts built on the edge of the Thal remain still, and attest the enterprise of the fakir. They must have been places of much strength in the 18th century. The most important of Gul Imám's public works was the construetion of the Uch canal, leaving the river Jhelam close under Máchhíwál and tailing off in Uch. The canal was one of those big ditches that are so extremely useful. Most of the water was monopolised by the fakir for irrigating Uch, though the excavation was effected by the forced labour of all the country through which it passed. The canal ceased to run about the end of the 18th century. after flowing for some sixty years. Zamíndárs are inveterate praisers of the days gone by, and love to dilate upon the wondrous prosperity of Uch when irrigated by the canal, how there was a lake under the gates of the fort and town (that are built on the edge of Thal), on which the fakir and his councillors took their pleasure in a boat, how the trees flourished, and how every well had its two or three acres of rice. Verily the glory is departed A tumble-down fort uninhabited and in ruins. from Uch. encircled by a straggling poverty-stricken village, looks down upon a strip of country on whose barren soils, tainted by salts and hard as iron, the only spontaneous growths are a few $j\acute{a}l$ bushes. The few wells are of the most wretched description, the worst in the Kachhi. The few episodes in which the Uch Sayads have played any historical part have been already mentioned in the account of the Siál chiefs. The semi-independence of the Sayads lasted as long as that of the Siáls, and succumbed to the advance of Ranjít

Singh. The head of the family is now a boy of 15 or 16 years old. The family has gone down in the world. They hold a jain worth some Rs. 800, but the property has been shamelessly squandered. and the income of the family estates now hardly suffices to pay the interest on the family debts. An attempt is now being made to extricate the Fakir Sahib, as he is always called, from his money difficulties.

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, castes and leading families.

The Rihans.

The Ríhans were in old days the rulers of the Kalowal ilàka, and Izzat Baklish was Walidád's governor, but Kálowal only formed a portion of the Sial kingdom for a very short period, and not much interest attaches to the family. Yara is the head of the family, a lambardar of several villages, and overwhelmed with debt. There are only three Ríhán villages in the district.

It is necessary now to return to the Sials, whose origin and The various leading history have already been fully related at pages 27 to 36, and to give some account of the principal branches of the tribe. The different families and clans of the Sials are countless. The royal family is the Jalál Khánána. Among the others the more important are the Rajbána, Bharwána, Kamlána, Chuchkána, Máhni, Sargána, Sarbána, Janjiána, Ali Khánána, Diráj, Chela, Perowána, Sajoke, Sahjar, Fakír Siál, Daulatána, Umrána, Khánúwána, Daduwána, Jabowána, Hasnána, Liwána, and Lakhnána families. It is fairly safe to assume that any tribe whose name ends in ana is of Siál extraction.

Siál families.

The Rajbánás.

The Rajbána family is one of the most important, both in point of numbers and in men of note. The Rajbánás are located in Shorkot. Mad and Badh Rajbána, Garh Máháraja, Ranjít Kot, Ahmadpur, many small villages around Kundal Khokhar, and others under the Thal, all belong to them. The family supplies many leading men,—Nusrat of Ahmadpur, Núr of Ranjít Kot, Varyám of Garh Máhárája, Dád of Badh Rajbána, all zaildúrs, Kásim and Ahmad, lambardars of Mad, &c. The tribe is descended from Bhopti, third son of Kohli, whose descendant in the 10th generation, Rajjab, gave his name to the tribe. They were originally settled at Alman in the Kachhi. Rajjab died at the time of Lál Khán Siál. tomb is at Wású Astána. The Rajbánás then moved southwards, and settled in the northern portion of the tract which they now The clan seems to have been a turbulent one. Fighting went on continually between them and the Beloches, Traggars, The Beloches were driven away from the Mirálís and others. Chenáb, and the Rajbánás extended their possessions as far as This village originally belonged to a tribe of But Jats. The tribe next commenced to raid into the territory of the Jhang Khán, Inayatulla; but subsequently aided him in his contest with the Mooltan Nawáb, and Garh Máhárája (built by Máhárája Kaura Mal) was granted to them. Kásım now became the tribal leader, and in return for assistance, Sultán Mahmúd, the Jhang chief, granted him the Garh Máhárája ildka in jágár. He was succeeded by Rajjab, the most able of all the Rajbánás. His first success was the repulse of an expedition sent against him by Sáhib Khán. He built several forts, among others the one still in existence at

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, castes and leading families.

The Rajbánás.

Garh Máhárája. Among Rajjab's other deeds are mentioned his co-operation with Khán Beg, Khán Tiwána, and others in an expedition against his brother Khán Muhammad Tiwáná. He shook off the authority of Muzaffar Khán, the Nawáb of Mooltan, and was defeated by him about 1811. It was at Rajjab's instigation that Ahmad Khán, the Jhang chief, was seized and imprisoned by Ranjít Singh on his way back from Mooltan. Rajjab lived in retirement on a liberal jàyìr during his old age, Garh Máhárája and the adjoining villages being under a Sikh Kárdár. His son Khán Beg rendered important assistance to Sir Herbert Edwardes in the Mooltan campaign. Khán Beg died a few years ago, and his son Varyám is now the head of the family. He holds a small pension, half of what his father held.

The Bharwanas.

The Bharwánás trace their descent to Bhairo, sixth in descent from Máhni. They were first settled in the Kachhi, somewhere to the north of Kot Maldeo. The Saliana Bharwanas were the most powerful branch, and were, as a rule, hostile to the ruling Kháns of Jhang. At the time of Walidad the Bharwanas resided chiefly in the interior of the Bár. Apparently they did not reside in the Kachhi for any length of time. Their settlements nearer the river were at Dhúin Muhammad and Káim Bharwáná. Walidad, among other acts, put the leader of the Bharwanas, Bakar, in prison. At that time the head-quarters of the Bharwánás were at Rahna Jallúwána in the Bár to the east of Jhang. attacked this village, but was defeated by the Bharwánás, aided by the Kathias. Then the victorious tribes fell out among themselves about cattle-grazing, and the Káthiás were driven off to the south by the Bharwanas. This clan never seems to have been happy unless it was fighting with some tribe or other. Raids and reprisals between the Bharwánás on the one side and the Fatiáná and Tahráná Siáls on the Rávi and the Kharals on the other, were of daily occurrence. In the Bar, east of Roranwali, and also to the north, there are some masonry dome-roofed buildings, evidently of considerable antiquity, that mark the place where Rind Beloches fell in battle with the Bharwánás. According to local tradition, these memorials date from the time when the Bharwánás first came across the Chenáb. The Sándal Bár was then occupied by the Rind Beloches, who supported themselves by camel-breeding. The advent of the Bharwánás was followed by quarrels about grazing rights. Hostilities broke out, but the Bharwánás were the stronger, and drove the Beloches out of the Bar. There are some few Beloches even now in the Bár, but they are dependents of the Bharwánás. The two principal settlements of the Bharwánás are at Mukhiáná, Satiána and Sultánpur north of Jhang, and at Káim Bharwáná, and the adjoining villages to the south. The headmen are Mamand and Ináyat, both well-known characters, to the north, and Núr Muhammad and Muhammad to the south. The Bharwánás are bad agriculturists, and prefer a pastoral life to following the plough and sitting behind the well bullocks. They are inclined to be extravagant like most other Siáls, and a few of them are considerably in debt. Jalla was a Bharwáná of note during the time of Sawan Mal, and a personal friend of the Díván's. The

Bharwánás practised infanticide to a large extent in old days. The custom is said to date from the tragic adventures of Sáhiba and Mirzá. The Bharwánás took their wives from the daughters of the Siprás, who curiously are found associated with the Bharwánás in almost all their villages. In some cases they are full proprietors, in other only taraddadkárs, and sometimes merely tenants-at-will.

The Kamlánás are an important Siál clan in the Shorkot tahsíl. Their head-quarters are at Jalálpur Kamláná. Kamál, 12th in descent from Bharmí, had three sons, from whom are descended the Sargánás, the Perowánás and the Kamlánás. The Kamlánás at first were residents in the country now occupied by the villages of Májhi Sultán and Cháyánwála, and the intervening tract. They were driven out by the Bharwánás and retreated southwards to Jalálpur, where they are still located. A Kamláná graveyard is still to be seen at Májhi Sultán. The leading men now are Sujáwal the zaildár, and Hashmat his enemy.

The Chúchkánás are the descendants of Chúchak, who was the Siál chief next before Mal Khán, his nephew, who founded Jhang. They are now located on either side of the Chenab north of Jhang. The chief villages are Kuriánwála on the left, and Pipalwála on the right bank. Murád, the zaildár, lives at Thatta Mahla, and is their

leader.

The Máhni clan has now almost died out. In former days they were independent, and the head-quarters of their chief was at Khíwa. Máhni was the son of Siál. Khíwa was founded by the leader, who gave it his name, a descendant from Siál in the 12th generation. Local tradition states the Chenáb was then flowing east of Khíwa, but this is evidently wrong. The Chenáb did no doubt once flow under the high bank of the Bar, about 16 miles south-east of Khiwa, but this must have been ages before. Khiwa was founded, the country to the north was held by Marals and Chaddhars. At first the Mahnis remained on good terms with their neighbours; but as they increased in strength, they began to drive them back. Khánúwána was founded in their lands to the north of Khíwa. The first chief of Khíwa really deserving the name was Sáhib Khán. The rule of the Khíwa chief in his high and palmy days extended from Bhowana to Chautala. independence of the Máhnís was extinguished by Walidád. From that time the clan appears to have rapidly declined in influence and numbers. There are now no Máhnís in Khíwa. The lands of the village were granted by Sawan Mal to Bakar, a leading man among the Bharwánás, whose family now holds it. Popular tradition attributes the decay of the Mahni clan to the curse of a fakír who lived at Chautála. This fakír had one fair daughter, who, being of somewhat weak intellect, wandered about the country in a state of nudity. In her wanderings she strayed into Khíwa, whence the Mahni chief drove her out with contumely, thinking no doubt that she was no better than she ought to be. This was resented by her father, who cursed the clan in the following words addressing himself to the sacred tree near his abode :-

Chautalia gharmália. Ithon Khichí Mahní Kad: Kahr Allah dá máría. Na rahene vad. Chapter III, C.

Tribes, castes and leading families.

The Kamlanas.

The Chuchkanas.

The Mahnis.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes, castes
and leading
families.
The Miralis.

The Kathias.

The Mirálís are Siáls who own several villages on the Rávi, and a little property on the lower Chenáb. The clan was originally located near Roránwáli, and was driven thence by the Bharwánás. Mirálí was the sixth in descent from Bharmí.

The Káthiás, who are one of the more important tribes in the Montgomery district, hold a considerable amount of property in the Shorkot tahsil. For speculation as to the origin of this tribe. pages 33 to 37, Vol. II, of the Archeological Survey Reports, should be consulted. They are said to have gained a footing in the Jhang district in the following way:—In the days of Inávatulla Khán, the Kamlánás, being displeased with his treatment of them. left their lands at Jalálpur and went down south and settled in the country of the Mooltan Nawab. Inavatulla sent messengers praying them to return, but they sent word back that they would only return at the Khan's personal request. The Khan accordingly set out from Jhang. Hearing of this, the Mooltan Nawab. already enraged at the recent annexation of Islámábád, laid an ambuscade for the Siál chief. Inávatulla obtained news of the design, and calling together an army of the Káthiás, Rajbánás, and other Siáls, retreated northwards. The defeat of the Mooltan Nawáb has been already noticed. The Káthiás displayed the most brilliant gallantry in the battle, and the grateful Inávatulla bestowed upon them the lands that they now hold in this district. Previously they lived on the Rávi and in the lower part of the Sándal Bár. The Bharwánás, now resident at Káim, were the former residents. The Káthiás still maintain their character for being a fine, manly, handsome race. Fázil, their old leader, died some years ago, and the tribe is not doing so well as it did in his time. He managed to extinguish all internal fends, or, at all events, to prevent their swelling to any injurious extent. Since his death the leadership has devolved upon his brother Ibráhím, a man of little ability or force of will.

Other Rajputs.

Besides the Siáls the only true Rájpút tribes in the district are the Chaddhars, the Bhattís, and the Kharals. In three villages only do the Kharals hold property, all in the Chiniot tahsíl, and they acquired their land chiefly in the dowry of their wives.

The Chaddhars.

The Chaddhars, with their sub-families of Jappás, Rajokes, Sajankos, Kangars, &c., are settled in the country between Thatta Wárá Muhammad Sháh, and Sáhmal beyond Sajanke on the left bank of the Chenáb in the lower portion of the Chiniot tahsíl. Their origin is obscure. They claim to be descended from Rája Tus, Súraj Bansí. They left their home in Rájpútána during the time of Muhammad Ghori, and proceeded first to Baháwalpur. They were converted to Muhammadanism by Sher Sháh of Uch. From Baháwalpur they came to Jhang, and settled in the lands beyond the country of the Máhni chief of Khíwa. The head family is that of Tahlí Mangíní, represented by Fatah Khán, a znildár. The Chaddhars of Tájá Berwálá are an old but decayed family. The Jappás are represented by a znildár Patháná of Bhowáná, and the Kangars by Ghaus of Kurk. The Chaddhars

are good agriculturists, and less given to cattle theft than their Chapter III. C.

neighbours, the Harals and Siáls.

The Bhattis hold a considerable tract of country, called Phattiora in local phrase, between the Shah Jiwana villages on the west and the Lálí country on the east. With the exception of three villages, the tract is in the Chiniot tahsíl north of the The principal villages are Ghoríwála, Kot Sultán, and Barrána. The origin of this tribe is discussed at pp. 19-22 of the Archæological Survey of India, Vol. II. The tribal tradition is that they emigrated from Bhatner in Rajputana. Their first settlement in this district was at Jandmáli, on the right bank of the Jhelam, not many miles from the Shahpur boundary. They migrated thence to the country which they now hold, over which the Sayad chief Latif Shah then ruled. The Bhattis are a fine ace of men, industrious agriculturists, hardly at all in debt, good forse-breeders, and very fond of sport. They do very little cattledifting, but are much addicted to carrying off each other's wives. Sardár of Kot Sultán and Chaghatta of Barrána are the Bhatti zaildàrs and among the most influential men of the tribe. The tribe owns only one village on the river; all the rest are in the Utár.

There are a considerable number of Beloches in the district, but with one or two exceptions all their villages lie to the west of the Chenáb. Above Kot Khán, the old limit of the Siál country, the Beloch villages are numerous on both sides the Jhelam, but below on the left bank there is not a single Beloch village properly so called. They are said to have settled in the district before the Siáls. Bábar in his memoirs mentions that there was a colony of Beloches in the countries of Bhera and Khusháb. This was in 1519 A.D., and it must have taken the Beloches some time to spread east as far as Bhera. The tribal tradition is that the Beloches first came into this part of the Punjab in the reign of Shah Husain, the Langa ruler of Mooltan. This was early in the 15th century, and after the arrival of the Siáls. But, on the other hand, there is undoubted evidence that the Sándal Bár east and south of Jhang was held by Rind Beloches before the Bharwana Siáls, and the Beloches were only driven out after severe fighting. The Beloch head-quarters were at Mirpur near the Rávi. Again, west of the lower Chenáb, the country along the banks of the river was certainly occupied by Beloches before the Rajbána Siáls pushed their way down to Ahmadpur. In fact the Beloches seem to have been in force and to have strenuously resisted the Siál advance. Possibly, however, the date generally accepted of the arrival of the Siáls may be wrong, or it may have taken the Siáls longer to spread over the country than is generally supposed; but at all events it seems to be satisfactorily established that the Beloches were holding the southern portion of the Sándal Bár and the country west of the Chenáb before the Siáls. The Beloches in this district never attained any importance. They have furnished no chief. Among them are to be found representatives of almost every clan and tribe. They possess no distinctive moral or physical features distinguish-

Tribes, castes and leading families.

The Bhattis.

The Beloches.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes, castes

Tribes, castes and leading families. ing them from other tribes; they are good agriculturists, though not very industrious. They are not addicted much to cattle theft. Among their leading men are Mahammad Khán Gáli, Sultán Khán of Márí. Ghulám Haidar of Kot Shákir, Sher Khán of Bulla. Of the Beloches of Jhang, 5.223 returned themselves as Rind, 1,849 as Jatoi, 774 as Hot, and 696 as Lashári by tribe in the Census of 1881.

The Gilotars.

The Gilotars are located between the Nissowánás and the Chenáb in the northern portion of Chiniot adjoining the Sháhpur district. They have no trustworthy traditions as to their origin. Their location in this part of the district is of comparatively recent origin. Several of their villages were grants from Sáwan Mal. They are a curious mixture of good and bad qualities, first rate agriculturists, and irreclaimable cattle-lifters. It is in their villages only that sugar-cane and maize are largely grown. Ismáil Gilotar of Gandlánwáli and Murád of Burj Mal are their leaders.

Kukárás.

The Kukárás or Nekokárás claim to be a branch of the Háshmi Kuraishís, but there is some doubt as to the fact. Shekh Nasíruddín came to Baháwalpur 450 years ago, and founded a village there called Shekh Wáhan. His family became followers of the Sayad of Uch in the same country. The family increased and multiplied, and the members began to emigrate northwards to Jhang, Gujránwála and other districts. There are Kukárás in all three tahsils in this district, and all claim to be descended from the same ancestor.

The Nissowanas.

The Nissowánás inhabit the northern corner of the Chiniot tahsíl between the Lálís, Gilotars, and the Sháhpur boundary. They claim to be a branch of the Khokhars. In the Sháhpur Settlement Report they are described as "notorious for their thieving propensities and generally lawless character." They still retain these qualities in a softened degree. They are a prosperous thriving clan, rich in flocks and herds, with scarcely any debts. Rája of Kándíwál, Bákar of Babrána, Mehra of Lole, are the leading men.

The Lalis.

West of the Nissowána country along the edge of the Bár, as far as the Bhatti villages, come the Lálís who have a fabulous origin in the plains of Khurásán. Their headmen are Rája, Muhammada and Gholám, all zvildàrs. Lálían is their largest village. The Lálís are not a very fine or spirited race of men, and differ both from the Bhattís and Nissowánás in this respect. They are mostly in debt, though there are one or two notable exceptions. They are not very first class farmers, and prefer grazing their cattle round a strip of báráni cultivation in the Kirána Bár to anything else.

The Harals.

The Harals are another tribe holding villages in the Chiniot tahsil only. From Murádwála to Sáíke, both on the left bank of the Chenáb, their villages are thickly studded along the bank of the river. They are said to have settled here during the rule of the Mughal Emperors, but it is probable that their coming was at an earlier date. Tradition makes them a branch of the Ahírs. They are the worst thieves in the district, except perhaps

the Gilotars, and bad cultivators. They own great numbers of horned cattle and sheep and goats, and pasture them in the Kirána and Sándal Bár alike. Sujáwal and Vasáwa, zaildárs, Sukha of Murádwála and Bálá of Sáíke, are the leading men of the tribe.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes, castes and leading

The Marals.

families.

The Marals at the present time do not own a single village, yet in past times they must have been an important tribe, for we constantly hear of them in the local lore. They claim to be Rájpúts, Chuháns of the Súraj Bansí race, and to have settled at Thatta Wárá beyond Khíwa in the Chiniot tah-síl during the reign of Akbar. The Sháh Jíwana legend makes them the proprietors of the lands where Sháh Jíwana now stands. Probably they occupied the tract between the Khíwa Siáls and the Chaddhars on the left bank, and also some lands on the right bank of the Chenáb. A few timilies still live in Maralwála, but are hereditary tenants only. There are a fine bold-looking set of men, have rather a bad reputation for cattle-lifting, and are not very desirable tenants. The cause of their decay is not well known.

The history of the Sayads of Uch and Rajoá has already been given. It remains to notice the other Sayads, viz., the Sháh Jíwanana and the Shekh Sulemána and other branches of the Bukhárí family: the Masha lí, the Gílání, and Bákrí families. The Sháh Jíwanana are the descendants of Sháh Jíwana, whose shrine is at the village of the same name. Many of the villages round are owned by this family, but Latíf Sháh and Hassan Sháh of Karíwála do not belong to it, though they are members of the Bukhárí branch. The Shekh Sulemána Sayads reside at Thatti Bálá Rája, west of Chiniot, at Chiniot itself, and several villages east of the town. Their followers are exceedingly numerous, and their income from offerings very large. They are careless landlords, addicted to intoxicating drinks and drugs, and not very estimable characters. The other Sayads hold so few villages as to need no mention.

The Akerás are Jats holding a small tract of country on both sides the Jhelam, just above Kot Khán, the limit of the old Siál rule. Their ancestor Khizr is said to have acquired the land by grant from Walidád Khán, in whose service he was for some time employed. They are thrifty and industrious zamíndárs, and breed a very good wiry little horse, something like the Beloch in shape. The headmen are with one exception well off. Sabbar and Hashmat are the two principal men of the tribe.

The Dabs are Jats, and own the large village of Dab Kalán, with a few others adjoining in Shorkot. They are good agriculturists. Bahádar, the zaildár, is their leader.

The Jútás are also Jats in spite of their brand-new pedigree table, that makes them out to be the descendants of one Jútá, a Manás Rájpút, and narrates that they were originally settled in Kashmír territory near Jammú, and migrated to Jhang in the days of Walidád and Ináyatulia. They hold two large villages and shares in several others. As agriculturists, they are industrious, but retain a penchant for cattle-lifting. Umrá of Alayár Jútá is their head.

Miscellaneous Sayads. Chapter III, C.

Tribes, castes and leading families.

> Miscellaneous Jats.

The Jhandírs hold a few villages in the extreme south of Shorkot on the right bank of the Chenáb. Their name is said to be derived from jhanda, a standard, as their ancestor had been a standard-bearer to the prophet or some of his descendants. This would give them a western origin, but the story is somewhat mythological. Though not openly professing to be religious directors, there is a certain odour of sanctity about the tribe. Most of the members can read and write. The droning monotone of Koránreading is always heard in their villages, and the elder members affect a certain clerical tone in their dress and appearance. A favourite aphorism "Dárhi Shekhán di, Kam Shaitánán da" does not apply. The tribe is particularly free from ill deeds of every description.

The Kuraishis.

In the Shorkot tahsíl the place occupied by Sayads in Jhang and Chiniot is taken by Kuraishís. The more important Kuraishífamilies of Haveli Bahádar Sháh and Pír Abdul Rahmán are not recognised as genuine by the true Háshmi Kuraishís, the descendants of the celebrated Muhammadan saint Makhdúm Báhá-ud-dín Zakríá. For an account of the family, pp. 490—494, "Punjab Chiefs, should be consulted. The Háshmi Kuraishís are represented in Shakúr in Jhang. Their character does not differ from that of other holy tribes. Makhdúm Jalál of Hassú Balel is a man of large property and influence, and a zaildár.

Other tribes.

Among other tribes holding land in proprietary right in the district are Mangans, Siprás, Laks, Asís, Mathrumás, and many others, but all too insignificant to merit separate notice.

The trading classes.

The trading classes are recruited almost entirely from Arorás, Khatrís and Khojahs. Only a few Brahmins are engaged in business. The Arorás are the most numerous, and are divided into an infinity of clans. They are the chief money-lenders and capitalists of the district, and also the chief creditors of the agriculturists and mortgagees of their lands. Many hold land in proprietorship. The Arorás have the reputation of being a most industrious, energetic, and laborious tribe. A local proverb embodies the idea: "Badha lak Arorián, munah koh Lahor." "When an Arora has girded up his loins, he makes the distance to Lahore only three-quarters of a kos." According to the proverb, a Kirár is not so merciless in his dealings with the zamíndárs as a Khojah:—" Kirár dandáli Khojah phahora," meaning that a Kirár like a toothed drag-rake leaves something behind, but a Khojah like a muck-scraper leaves nothing, is a favourite simile. They are invariably termed Kirár, which is also used to denominate the whole Hindú population. Kirár is not a complimentary appellation. Meeting a Gondal tenant-at-will once near Jhang, Mr. Steedman mentioned that his tribesmen in Gujrát were great thieves. "Ah, yes," he replied, evidently taking what was said as very complimentary, "but here I don't do anything of the sort; I have not got as much spirit as a Kirár." The term is often used by Khatrís and Brahmins towards their co-religionists, the Arorás, but hardly ever by an Arorá of them. Except in the large villages and the towns, there are but few Khatris in the district. The principal claus are Katiáls, Kapúrs, Khannás, Mehrautrás, Saihgals, Maggús, Mahtás, Dhawans, and Talwárs. All are engaged in business, except the Khannás, who own the village of Kot Maldeo, and prefer Government service to any other employment. There are proportionately more Khatris at Chiniot than elsewhere. At Chiniot, too, is a large colony of Khojahs, many of whom are traders on a large scale, with branches and correspondents at Calcutta and Bombay. They are converts from Hinduism, as is clearly indicated by the fact that many of their family divisions bear the same name as those of the Arorás and Khatris. The date of their conversion is put at 400 Hijra, and their first settlements were at Thatta Wárá and Dáwar, both villages in the Chiniot They migrated to Chiniot about 120 years ago in Sambat 1816, which is said to have been at the time held by the Bhangi Sikhs. There they appear to have thriven, and to have been entrusted with posts of importance. When Ranjít Singh took Chiniot, Mián Sultán, a Khojah, was over the citadel, and though the Bhangi forces had been defeated outside the town and the Bhangi leader taken prisoner, he held out stoutly and refused to desert his charge or open the fort except at the order of his master. Ranjít Singh, the story goes, was so pleased with his stubborn fidelity, that he made him a grant of Kálowál and Changránwála, formerly the property of Ríháns, the greater portion of which is held by Khojahs to this day. There are no Khojahs in Jhang, but many have settled in Maghiana, and are among the wealthiest and most public-spirited of the residents. Of the Arorás, 18,004 returned themselves as Utrádhi, 2,185 as Dakhana, and 23,541 as Dáhra in the Census of 1881. The chief divisions of the Khatrís according to the same Census are shown below:—

SUB-DIVISIONS OF KHATRIS.

Name.		Number.	Name.	Name.		
Punjabi Bahri Panjzáti Charzati		6,634 1,594 740 2,322	Dháighar Kapur Khanne Mehrautra		250 1,182 469 1,614	

Note.—Many of these are shown twice over; thus 940 of the Mehrautra are also shown as Chárzáti, and nearly all the Kapur as Bahri or Chárzáti.

It is difficult to define the quality of each tribe as agri- Agricultural characculturists, the variations are so great. In Chiniot the Jat villages along the river bank are excellently farmed. Towards the Bár the cultivation is most inferior. In Jhang the Siáls on the Jhelam are often careful and industrious cultivators. On the left bank of the Chenáb they care little for agriculture, and keep large herds of cattle. Some Haral villages are well cultivated, others are deserted if after favourable rain there is good grass in the Bár. On the whole the Jats are the best cultivators in the district, but even their cultivation taken all round is nothing very wonderful. Naturally they are inclined more to a pastoral life and cattle-lifting than to driving a plough. A Jat who farms his own land seldom farms it badly, and is a better cultivator than the Jat tenantat-will. Some of the Khokhar villages near Kot Isa Shah will compare with any in the district. The Siáls are not good culti-

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Agricultural character of each tribe.

The better families have hitherto considered it dishonourable to touch a plough, but this feeling is now confined to families in affluent circumstances. Poor Siáls have to cultivate, just as any other zamindár, to earn their daily bread. In old days, no doubt, the livelihood of the Siáls who dwelt along the Chenáb depended more on their cattle than on agriculture; and their wealth in herds more on their audacity as cattle-lifters than their skill as cattle-breeders. Now-a-days this source of income is far less profitable. Cattle theft is still rife, but the chances of detection, where it is carried on in a wholesale manner, are too many to allow it to be adopted as a safe and lucrative calling. In old days a band of Chenáb thieves would swim a whole herd of buffaloes from the Chiniot tahsil to Shorkot, and there dispose of them. Theft now, except in the Bár, does not go ordinarily beyond a buffalo or two, or a pair of bullocks. With the decline of cattlelifting as a livelihood, agriculture has come more into favour. The large extension of cultivation, especially in sailab lands has diminished the number of cattle in many parts of the district, notably on the Jhelam, and rendered a recourse to agriculture for a living more a matter of necessity than of choice. Cattle grazing as a means of livelihood can only be profitably carried on in villages containing a large quantity of pasture land, either in river (belas) or in the Utar. On the Jhelam almost all available land has been cultivated. On the Chenáb the villages usually contain a large quantity of waste more or less suitable for grazing. Large herds of cattle are kept, and the income therefrom is probably greater than from the land. In such villages cultivation is inferior. proprietors do not hesitate to neglect their fields for the sake of their cattle. The difference between the farming of the Sials on the Jhelam and those on the Chenáb is very great. Savads are bad managers, and they hardly ever touch a plough. They are a thriftless extravagant class, about the worst bargains Government has. Hindús are first class cultivators, most industrious and careful, but they cultivate but little land. Beloches are a little superior to the Siáls. Chaddhars and Bhattis are prosperous farmers, and are both good managers and careful cultivators. Khojahs and the other miscellaneous Muhammadans do not cultivate much themselves, but they look after their property very carefully. and their land is, as a rule, exceedingly well cultivated. Kamíns are about as bad cultivators as a landlord can get.

Tribal restrictions In I upon intermarriage. wrote:

In his Census Report for 1881, the Deputy Commissioner wrote:—

"Tribal restrictions in marriage are jealously observed by the people. Among the Muhammadans the Sayads freely take the daughters of others in marriage, but give their own daughters only to men of their own caste. A Sayad would hold it a dishonour to marry his daughter to a Mughal or Pathán, though not actually a sin: for strict Muhammadan law declares that 'all Muhammadans are brothers.' Hindú caste restrictions seem to have been adopted by Muhammadans with regard to marriage. The Kuraishis, claiming to be the direct descendants of Muhammad, follow—this district the customs of the Sayads in this respect. Rájpúts prefer giving their daughters to Rájpúts, and seldom give them to Jats, though they take daughters in marriage with no restriction

The Hindús are chiefly composed of Brahmans, Khatris, Arorás and Bhátiás. The Brahmans do not give their daughters in marriage to the other sects but marry among themselves. Khatris are primarily of two kinds, the Báhris and the Banjáhis. The Báhris again are sub-divided into Adháighar, Chárghar, Bárághar (literally 25 families, 4 families, and 12 families). Adháighar may marry the daughter of Chárghar and the latter of Bárághar, but Adhái or Chár would not give daughters to Bárá. The above three sub-divisions may intermarry among themselves, but if an Adhiligher should marry a daughter of Bárághar, he is degraded to Chárghar. If he gives a daughter to Chárghar or Báróghar he descends to the easte into which he has married his daughter. Bárághar may take the daughter of Banjáhis without losing their own caste. The Banjáhis intermarry among themselves and give their daughters to Böhris, but have no right to take daughters from Báhrís. The Arorás are chiefly composed of Utrádhís and Dáhrás. The former intermarry among themselves and take daughters from Dáhrás, but never give them. The Dáhrás marry in their own tribe. The Bhátiás have the same sub-division as the Khatris, with this difference, that the former are considered of secondary importance to the latter, and indeed to the Arorás. The Bhátiás intermarry among themselves."

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Village communities and tenures.

Tribal restrictions upon intermarriage.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure, as returned in quinquennial Table No. XXXIII of the Administration Report for 1878-79. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures; the primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions follows another form, which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. In Jhang especially the form of village tenure is peculiar, as will be shown in the following pages. The statement below shows the village tenures as classified by Mr. Steedman at the recent Settlement:—

Village tenures.

Communal zamindári		Chiniot. 1 16 1 111 111 123	Jhang. S 24 189 125	Shorkot. 2 8 112 54	District. 11 48 1 412 302
1 ~	pattidári	123	$\frac{125}{12}$	15	$\frac{302}{40}$
Total .		265	358	191	814

The prevailing tenure of the district is a kind of imperfect Bhayáchára, known as *Bhayáchára cháhwár*. In the occupied lands, wells and sailáb, possession is the measure of right. The unattached waste is generally village common; held, it may be, on *khewat* shares, where the joint right of each Khewatdár is measured by

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Village communities and tenures.

Proprietary tenures.

the share of the village assessment paid by him, or individual right is represented by the fraction of the total area of the village held; or on ancestral shares by the descendants of the original founder or founders of the village to the exclusion of the other proprietors.

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of tenure, and also gives details for large estates and for Government grants and similar tenures. The figures are taken from the quinquennial table prepared for the Administration Report of 1878-79. The accuracy of the figures is, however, exceedingly doubtful; indeed, land tenures assume so many and such complex forms in the Punjab that it is impossible to classify them successfully under a few general headings. This is especially the case in Jhang and the neighbouring districts, where the constitution of what most nearly corresponds with the village communities of the Eastern Punjab, and the general form of rights in land, are exceedingly peculiar, unusual incidents attaching even to the ordinary form of mortgage. The peculiarities are owing partly to the scattered and precarious nature of the cultivation, and its entire dependence upon water other than rainfall; but still more, perhaps, to the nature of the revenue system that obtained under the government that preceded our own. It is therefore impossible to describe existing rights and tenures without first discussing the revenue policy to which they so largely owe their existence.

Proprietary right under the Sials and Sikhs.

Proprietary right, as the term is understood now-a-days, can hardly be said to have existed either under the Siáls or under the Sikhs; as has been very truly remarked in the Settlement Report of a neighbouring district:-"It must always be remembered that "under native rule no such thing as absolute proprietary right was "recognised. The missing class was not the hereditary tenant, but "the proprietor." It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to define with any accuracy to what extent rights of property in land did exist, but they were certainly not extinct. The ruling power was not an all powerful landlord, nor were all the subjects, except those enjoying special privileges, merely tenants-at-will. That some rights of transfer and mortgage were possessed and exercised during the reigns of the latter Siál Kháns is abundantly proved. Many undoubtedly genuine deeds were produced in land cases during the recent Settlement. The history of the district and of the tribes that inhabit it, plainly shows that since the time of Walidad Khán there have been no great changes in the location of the They still hold the same villages that they then held. The lands of Kot Khán are still the property of the descendants of Walidad's successful lieutenant, Sharif Khan Aliana. The Rajbanas are still the proprietors of the villages conquered by their ancestors from the Beloches. Even the Nauls, though subjected by the Siáls, possess most of the lands, lying on either side of Jhang, that they held before the advent of their subduers. At the same time the property of the subject was strictly confined to the land in his possession; that is to say, to the land cultivated by the subject, with a reasonable amount of immediately adjoining culturable

Beyond this the individual had no proprietary rights whatever. Neither under the Siáls nor under the Sikhs were there village estates with demarcated boundaries as there are now. These are our creations, exotics transplanted from the plains of the North-Western Provinces. Knowing the main facts of the history of the Siál tribe, it is not difficult to picture how fluid must have been the state of property when they first settled in the country, and how it gradually hardened during the later reigns of the Kháns and under the Sikhs. The Siáls for some time after their arrival were shepherds and herdsmen, and the extent of their agriculture, judging from the state of the district at annexation, did not probably exceed what the nomad tribes of the Bár practise at the present time. They did not even cultivate the easily-tilled lands subject to annual floods from the river. Mr. Monckton speaks about the dense jhàù jangal on the banks of the rivers in his time. The word Mara is still the prefix in the names of several villages on the Chenáb, signifying a dense and dangerous jangal. Until Walida'l's time the Sial Khans were merely tax-gatherers under the Imperial rule, and we know but little about the condition of their subjects. Hitherto the Siáls had been multiplying and spreading over the land, and the different clans settling down permanently in the various parts of the country they now occupy. These settlements are the nuclei of our present villages. The inhabitants cultivated more or less land near the hamlet and on their neighbouring wells. Adjacent villages or settlements seldom interfered with one another. There were no boundary disputes, because there were no boundaries. The intermediate waste was the property of the State. The population in those days must have been very scanty, and the non-existence of boundaries did not prove inconvenient, as the waste lands did not belong to the villagers. A certain proportion of the produce was taken by the Government of the day, and so long as this was paid and the lands held by the individual were not badly cultivated, the cultivator was left in peace. So long as a good revenue was yielded, the Government asked no questions; but if the subject was found to be in possession of land that he did not cultivate, or endeavouring to cultivate more land than his means would allow of, the Khan had no compunction in granting the uncultivated land to any applicant who applied for it, or in making over the excess of the land cultivated to any other person who had the requisite capital for its proper cultivation. The object of the ruler was an increase of revenue, and if occupancy or proprietary rights, as we understand the terms, stood in the way of its attainment, it was so much the worse for them. If this was the case under the later Siáls who might be expected to have had some compassion for their subjects, it was only too probable that under the Sikhs the disregard of property in land should be intensified, and that the rulers, Hindús by caste, should have employed every device to wring as large a revenue as possible out of a subject Muhammadan race.

The extortionate tyranny of the Sikhs, and also of the later Siáls, gave rise to a new species of right—that of Hàth-

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Hàthrakhàidàre.

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Háthrakháidárs.

rakháí or taulukádári as it is also called. There is no difference between the two rights, and in every case the origin of the tenure is the same. The original proprietor is always in cultivating possession of the land. The broken-hearted cultivator of the land, who was also the proprietor, finding the demands and exactions on account of revenue absolutely unbearable, made over the proprietary share of the produce, and with it the responsibility for the revenue, to some influential man whom the Government treated with consideration, who assented to the arrangement, thinking that he would probably be able to make something out of the contract, for contract it was at the outset and nothing more. The cultivating proprietor said to the contractor, "I cannot pay the revenue any longer. Do you take the proprie-"tary share of the produce, allowing me some fee in recognition of "mv rights, and pay the revenue, yours being the profit and loss." The contractor who thus engaged to pay the Government revenue in consideration of the proprietary share of the produce, minus the proprietor's fee, is called Háthrakháídár, Háthrakhnewála, and the person who makes over the produce and withdraws from the responsibility for the Government revenue, Háthrakhwánewála. Háth rakhná, to place the hand on, is equivalent to "to protect," and the causal form means to get the hand placed, to obtain protection. Originally there were no conditions as to the termination of the contract, but it was undoubtedly understood to be terminable at the will of either party, and if we find that this power was seldom if ever exercised, the fact will be intelligible enough when the character of the Siál and Sikh revenue administration is recollected. As a rule, the original proprietor would not be anxious to regain his "rights, symbols more of misery than of benefit," and the Háhrakháídár, perhaps paving nothing, or only at the most favourable rates to the Khalsa exchequer, would be in no hurry to renounce an easy and lucrative source of income. But had the Háthrakháídár lost his influence with the Governor and been squeezed for revenue as an ordinary agriculturist, he would have thrown up his contract, and the original proprietor would not have thought of raising any objection. Conversely, the right of resumption would belong to the original proprietor. In Chiniot and Shorkot the amount of land held by these middlemen is very small. They are most numerous in Jhang, and the land they hold is generally on the banks of the Jhelam. The Nath Sahib of Jhang, a Hindu fakír, Charan Dás Sarráf, Brahmins, Gusáíns, and others, who, as religious devotees, were held in much consideration by the Sikhs, are the large Háthrakháídúrs. At the first Regular Settlement the general opinion of the Settlement Officer was that the Háthrakháídár was to use Mr. Vans Agnew's words:-- "A "mustájir on the behalf of the proprietor for the Government revenue "taking a share of the produce." He was considered to have no power to alienate his status, for the proprietor might not have confidence in the third party to whom the Háthrakháidár wished to transfer his privilege. Mír Izzat Alí's opinion, dated 23rd August 1855, to which Mr. Monckton generally agreed, is still extant. He considered the Háthrakhásdár to be a simple mustájir, having no

power of transfer, and that the contract was terminable at the will of either party; but unfortunately he never could bring himself to interfere with the status quo ante in the cases affecting the tenure that he had to deal with. He noted that cases had occurred where the Hathrakhaidar had been ousted by the original proprietor either of his own motion or through the action of a Panchavit, and also where dispossession had taken place in accordance with a judicial order. But as far as has been ascertained, not a single order of any Court has been discovered terminating a Hàthrakhài. In all cases the settlement was made with the Hàthrakhàidàr without any condition whatever as to the nature of his tenure. The consequence is that the right of Hathrakhai, the right to take the proprietor's share of the produce, minus a fee, varying in amount, in recognition of the rights of the original proprietor, has crystallized into a permanent transferable and hereditary right. The Hathrakhaladars being men of power have been steadily encroaching on the rights of the original proprietor ever since the old Settlement, and have acquired by prescription certain privileges in regard to trees and bhusa to which they originally had no right whatever. Hitherto the Hathrakhaidar has not claimed any right to the land, and right he has none. All that he can claim is his share of the produce. He cannot claim to share in the land by partition, and he has nothing whatever to do with arranging for the cultivation. As a rule, the Minar, Jakh, Rasùl arwahi and Ganesh fees belong to the original proprietor. There are some doubts as to Bhàra and Mohassil fees. Between the Hàthrakhàidàr and the Mustàjir or Mushakhsàdàr of the Dera Ismáil Khán district there is an important distinction. Mushakhsàdàr was a farmer of the revenue appointed by Government generally over a whole village or ilàka. The Hathrakhaidar is the nominee of the individual, the entrustee of his privilege, to take the proprietary share of the produce and pay the revenue. The Mushakhsaddur takes the mahsal, the Government share of the produce, and there is no contract between him and the zamíndár. The share taken by the Háthrakháidár is the result of an agreement between him and the original proprietor. Viewed in the light of our present revenue administration, the contract appears to be a very one-sided transaction, but at the time it was made, the consideration was material and valuable, viz., protection from the extortionate demands of the Sikh farmer. Now the contract exists in virtue of prescription, while the reasons for its existence have passed away. If the right course would have been to oust these entrustees of the right to pay the revenue, the Regular Settlement was the time and opportunity for such a measure. The tenure was then comparatively in its infancy, but now more than 20 years have been added to its age. One reason why the Hathrakhaidars maintained their position was the doubt and distrust with which our first Settlement operations were regarded by an ignorant people. In fixing their boundaries even, their object was not to include as much but as little land as possible within the village. Instances of this are numerous.

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Háthrákháidárs

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Taraddadkárs.

The taraddadkàri tenure also dates from the time of the Siáls, though it was under Sáwan Mal's fiscal administration that it was most fostered. This tenure is closely allied to the adhlàpi and chakdùri tenures of the southern districts of the Mooltan and Deráját divisions. The conditions and circumstances under which the tarraddadkàri tenure arises and has arisen are exceedingly diverse, and that the rights and privileges of the Taraddadkar are of great variation. The highest form of the tenure is where the Taraddadkàr is a full proprietor; the lowest where he is nothing more than a tenant who, so long as he cultivates, cannot be ousted, but whose rights are neither transferable nor hereditary. The indigenous relations subsisting between proprietors and tenants in this district have favoured the growth of this tenure, no less than Sawan Mal's efforts to extend cultivation. In Jhang it is the proprietor who runs after the tenant and beseeches him to cultivate his well. The proprietor often found, and even now often finds it worth while to make over a well in working order to a tenant, on the terms that he should pay half the proprietary share of the produce to the proprietor, who remained responsible for half the revenue, and himself retain the other half and pay half the revenue, it being understood that so long as the tenant continued to cultivate or arranged for cultivation he could not be ousted from the land so made over. Any person holding land belonging to another on these terms is called a Taraddadkar. He has taken the land or the well on taraddad. His tenure is taraddadi or taraddadkàri. Where a well in working order was made over, if the making over took place many years ago, the Taraddadkar's right will probably be hereditary but not transferable. His son will succeed him, but he cannot sell or mortgage his rights, as the agreement is a personal one. Where, however, the proprietor of the land made it over to a Taraddudkar, who constructed a well in it at his own expense, the Taraddadkar, in the absence of any express agreement, is a full half proprietor. So long as the well lands are undivided, the Taraddadkar proprietor is responsible for the cultivation of the land, and either loses his rights or becomes liable to be cast in damages at the suit of the original proprietor of the land, if he fails to cultivate or cultivates in a manner contrary to good husbandry. But he has the power to partition the well estate; and once partition is effected, he becomes absolute proprietor of half the water and of the land that has fallen to his share. The right to claim partition is the test of full proprietary right. If the Taraddadkar cannot claim partition, he is not a full proprietor, whatever his other privileges. All Taradddkars have the power of arranging for the cultivation. It does not matter whether the Taraddadkar cultivates himself or by a tenant. So long as the land is cultivated, the original proprietor cannot interfere. The above remarks apply chiefly to old taraddadi tenures. Of late new tenures of this description have been chiefly created by deed, and it is only where the deed is silent that evidence of local custom is admissible. The original proprietor has, however, to be very careful how he treats his Taraddadkars. In one case the deed creating the tenure declared that the Taraddadkar had

no power to mortgage. He wanted to mortgage, but the proprietor refused to allow him to do so. The Taraddadkûr then threw up the well, and the proprietor found himself saddled with a well out of work but bearing an assessment, and with but little hope of obtaining a tenant. Instances of the taraddadi tenure on sailàb lands are exceedingly rare, even if they occur at all. The rights of hereditary tenants on sailàb lands are analogous to those of Taraddadkûrs, but an occupancy tenant hardly ever pays half the revenue. As a rule, he pays at the same produce rates as the tenant-at-will. His occupancy rights were acquired by his breaking up the land. He probably also took the entire crop for the first one or two years rent free.

Of the true Taalukdàri tenure in this district a few instances only are found. The terms Hàthrakhàì and Taalukdàri have become somewhat confused, as under the former tenure the original proprietor is called Taalukdàr, and his proprietary fee taken from the Hàthrakhàìdàr, hak-taalukdàri. Rights similar to those of superior proprietary right are also styled Taalukdàri in Jhang, e. g., where cultivators during the rule of Sáwan Mal became so far independent that they were created proprietors at the first Settlement, subject to a small cash màlikàna payment to the original lords of the soil.

The fiscal administration of Sawan Mal left indelible marks on the proprietary system of the district. The theory that the land belonged to the State was carried by him to far farther lengths than it had ever been carried before. Under the Siál rule the rights of the dominant tribe had been more or less respected, but under the Divan they saw men who and whose ancestors had as tenants tilled their lands from time immemorial, and, as inferiors, had given them their daughters in marriage, elevated to the rank of full proprietors. Under Sawan Mal any person who broke up land in any portion of the district, or who set to work a well that had been deserted, became the proprietor of that land or well. In practice the Diván held that no man had any right to any land that he could not cultivate, and grants of waste land were given to anybody who could bring it under cultivation. Not only did this take place, but many persons who had formerly been tenants-at-will found themselves invested with the doubtful privilege of paying direct to the State. The proprietors dropped out because there was no room for them. The State took everything it could from the cultivator, and the idea of a middleman intercepting part of the collection was not for a moment entertained. Grants of waste sailàb land could be obtained by anybody who could pay the requisite nazràna. The result can easily be imagined. The Siál settlements and villages still remained Siál, but there was a strong infiltration of proprietors of every class. Nothing was sacred to Sawan Mal. Chuhras and kamins were in his eyes just as good proprietors, probably better than Siáls and Beloches. There were then no boundaries. The Siáls retained what they could cultivate. The waste was occupied by Sawan Mal's colonists. Such a system was of course fatal to all proprietary rights over tracts, such as the superior proprietary rights

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Turaddadkars.

Taalukdars.

Proprietary right under Sáwan Mal. Chapter III, D.

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Proprietary right under Sawan Mal. that still exist in the Indus Kachhi and the Damán of the Dera Ismáil Khán district. When the representative of the Siál Kháns was dependent upon the charity of Sáwan Mal for his daily bread, it is not difficult to understand why no superior proprietary rights survived. Probably such rights, too, were not very common, though the Ahmadpur and Garh Máhárája Siáls and the Nawáb of Jhang have sometimes claimed that they did exist. The few instances of superior proprietary right that do exist, e. g., those of the Rajoá. Thatti Bálá Rája and Alipur Sayads over Bukhári, Tárú and Buddhí Thatti, are creations of the Regular Settlement. The land belonged to the superior proprietors, but the inferior proprietors had been so long in possession by taking produce and direct payment of revenue to the Sikhs, that they were deemed to be entitled to the proprietorship, subject to the payment of a proprietary fee, usually a percentage on the jama.

The creation of villages at the Regular Settlement. Shortly after annexation, the time between being taken up by two Summary Settlements, the Regular Settlement commenced, and it became necessary to fix village boundaries and to create private proprietary rights in land where they had never before been recognised even if, as is very doubtful, they had ever existed. The following quotation from Mr. Monckton's report describes how this was effected, and what the villages were when the Regular Settlement began:—

"The revenue arrangements of the native governments in the Mooltan province, never having recognised the village system, but dealing separately with each well or cluster of wells, there were naturally no well defined estates, and the mauzahs in Mr. Cock's and the Summary Settlements were merely parcels of land paying revenue under one denomination, but with no fixed principles for their union. Generally there would be one principal village by which the name of the mahal would be distinguished, with subordinate handets and outlying wells often at a great distance, and situated within the boundaries of another estate. In parganus Chiniot and Jhang the manzahs were tolerably regular, and in making the demarcation of boundaries the outlying wells were treated as chaks, if their owners desired to continue attached to the parent village. In paryanàs Kádirpúr and Uch the holdings appeared to have no tie in common. Many mahals were composed entirely of portions of lands (wells?) scattered among other estates and having no village site or any head whatever. These last were all abolished in the revised hadbast, and the estates were formed with reference to village sites only; no outlying chaks were left except in jàgìr villages. The people readily acquiesced in the change, and any other course would have led to indefinite complications in the preparation of the record of holdings and responsibilities, and in the determination of rights in waste land, especially the sailaba; while no collocation of holdings according to similarity of easte among a people wholly unaccustomed to act in common, offered so fair a chance of cementing a union as that of common interest involved in a compact topographical distribution."

Briefly, within the *mahal* or village, the boundaries of which had been thus arbitrarily fixed, each man in possession of land of which he took the produce and paid the revenue was recorded as proprietor. The waste lands were almost invariably recorded

as village common land held on khewat shares. But little attention appears to have been paid to the determination of rights in the waste. In fact there probably were no rights. In some villages the cultivation was measured up alone, and alone numbered on the field map. If the people had understood our revenue system, and if there had been any inquiry into the proprietorship of the disused wells in the waste, there would probably have been Regular Settlement. a considerable diminution of the area recorded as village common. But the people were doubtless apathetic to a degree, and any energy evinced was rather directed against the acquisition of waste land, so that unless it had been reserved as Government property there was perhaps nothing to be done except to record the waste as village common. The waste lands included in the village boundaries were thus made a present to the knewatdars. Mr. Steedman writes:—

" It would probably have been best to have retained to Government some such authority in respect to the sinking of new wells as was exercised in the Thal until the last Settlement of Dera Ismail Khan: or, if Government was to retire completely, the old families of the district, the founders of the village, might have been given a preference over the motley crew whose proprietary rights only dated from the time of the Diván. Some of the Siáls managed to regain property of which they had been despoiled by the Sikh Kardars, but it was not much. Regrets, however, are now vain, and if mistakes were made, the lapse of 25 years has accustomed and familiarised the people to them, and the thing that is, is accepted as the thing that is right.

Mr. Steedman thus describes the riverain custom of the district:

"The boundaries of opposite villages in the intermediate river bed have been demarcated at this Settlement, and the river measured and mapped. The main principles on which the boundaries were fixed were The boundaries of the adjacent villages were first mapped according to the Revenue Survey of 1855 and the Regular Settlement field maps. Then on the same map all land that had since accreted and been occupied and held by either village as proprietor was plotted. Land once so held was allotted to the occupying village. If any land still remained on which it was clear that nobody had been in possession, it was generally divided between the two villages, though if one village had since last Settlement acquired a large slice of the river bed, while the other had lost by diluvion, the major portion of the hitherto unappropriated land might be awarded to the latter. Although this has been done, I do not suppose that when land actually accretes in places where land has never within memory existed, the present demarcation between villages will be accepted without question. Within the village boundary there is one rule for the whole of the As far as I know there are no exceptions. If land held now or formerly in proprietary right decretes or has decreted, and subsequently land accretes on the site of such land, it will be the property of the proprietors whose land formerly occupied that site. As to newly accreted land, in regard to which no old proprietary right can be proved, I venture no opinion. Whenever such a case comes up, it must be decided on its merits, if there is no provision for it in the Wajib-ul-arz."

Besides the ordinary form of mortgage, there is a kind of running mortgage called Lekha Mukhí, which is separately described

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The creation of villages at the

Riverain custom. Alluvion and Diluvion.

Mortgages,

Village communities and tenures.

Mortgages.

Chapter III, D. below. The ordinary mortgage is of the usual usufructuary kind. The mortgagee pays the revenue and takes the proprietary share of the produce. Redemption can only take place on the first day of the months of Hár or Mágh. The mortgagor is responsible for the cost of repairs to a well, the construction of a new one, if the old one falls in or becomes useless, and the mortgagee has in such cases full powers to construct or repair a well. The cost of such repairs, &c., is added to the original mortgagemoney, and must be paid before redemption can be effected. The liability of the mortgagor for such charges may appear at first somewhat unjust; but when it is remembered that in this district generally land can only be cultivated by the aid of artificial irrigation, and that a useless well means no cultivation, it is not a matter for surprise that the mortgagee should insist upon conditions that assure to him the use of the well in good order as well as that of the land. The mortgagee cannot throw up his mortgage if the well falls out of work, and so long as the mortgage remains, it is he who will have to pay the assessed revenue. It is only fair, too, that a mortgagee, if the deed allows him to construct a new well, should recover its cost at redemption as the value of an unexhausted improvement. The mortgagor is also liable for expenses attendant on the breaking up of new land by the mortgagee for purposes of cultivation. The mortgagor almost invariably receives some fees in kind in recognition of his proprietary title; 2 topás per kharvár and 1 topá per threshing floor are as common fees as any. The mortgagee can cut trees for boná fide repairs to the well, the well buildings, and agricultural implements needed for the cultivation of the well lands. As a rule, the original proprietor is left in cultivating possession. Sometimes the mortgage deed expressly reserves to him the right of cultivation. There are instances of separate sub-mortgages of the right of arranging for the cultivation. In old deeds there is usually no stipulation as to the right to cultivate. In those of modern date the right is either distinctly reserved to the mortgagor or mortgagee, and if to the former, a stipulation is added that if the mortgagor fail to arrange for the cultivation of the land, the right to do so shall accrue to the mortgagee. In a very few instances the mortgagor remains responsible for the payment of the revenue. In recent mortgages it is often conditioned that redemption shall not take place until after a fixed period. In some mortgages the mortgagor is left in possession and pays the revenue, the mortgagee only charging the land with an annual payment in kind of a fixed amount.

Lekha Mukhi.

Lekha Mukhi is a running mortgage. The proprietary share of the produce is made over to the creditor, who pays the revenue and keeps an account of receipts and disbursements. Lekha Mukhi conveyances arise in two ways. One is where the proprietor has obtained a loan from the Lekha Mukhidár, and makes over a well or a share in a well to his management. The other is where an estate is made over to the Lekha Mukhidár, not so much as creditor as agent. The accounts are kept in the same manner in either case. The Lekha Mukhidár collects the crops

and credits the proprietor with their value. He debits him with the Government revenue, the costs of repairs, maintenance, &c., in fact with all working expenses and charges usually defrayed by the proprietor. His fee consists of the muhassili two topás per kharwár, and he also charges interest if the proprietor gets into his debt. The interest is never less than 12 per cent. per annum, and is often much higher. Lekha Mukhí in the hands of an astute Hindú is usually fatal to the zamíndár. The Lekha Mukhídár embezzles and peculates as far as he dares.

In many villages of this district the proprietors of date palms are not the proprietors of the soil in which they stand. The origin of this tenure is obscure. In the Deraját the date palms were often the property of the State as a separate source of sayer revenue. In this district the date palms were separately leased, but were apparently never considered the property of the State. Perhaps the present proprietors, where they are not the lords of the soil, were originally the persons who contracted for the revenue from year to year, and were invested with the rights of property at the Regular Settlement. If old deeds are to be trusted, private proprietorship in these palms is of considerable age. Whatever its origin, the fact remains that the proprietors of the palms are often not the proprietors of the land, and where the proprietorship in young trees is in issue, the determination of the rights of the two proprietors is no easy matter.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in the

	0		
Tahsil.		Zaildárs.	Village headmen.
Jhang Chiniot Shorkot Total		25 20 17 62	497 449 257 1,113

nargin show the number of headmen in the several tahsils of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by here-ditary right subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner, each village, or in large villages each main division of the village, having one or more who represent their clients in their dealings with the Government, are responsible for the collection of the revenue, and are bound to assist

in the prevention and detection of crime. Chief headmen are not appointed in this district. The zaildár is elected by the headmen of the zail or circle, the boundaries of which are, as far as possible, so fixed as to correspond with the tribal distribution of the people. The zaildárs are remunerated by a deduction of one per cent. upon the land revenue of their circles or villages; while the headmen collect a cess of five per cent. in addition to the revenue for which they are responsible. In the three tahsíls of the district the zaildárs also enjoy small ináms or cash allowances annually which were made to them at Settlement. The head-quarters of the zails, together with the prevailing tribes in each, are shown on the next two pages.

Chapter III, D.

Village communities and tenures.

Lekha Mukhi.

Proprietary rights in date palms.

Village officers.

Chapter III, D.

Village communities and tenures.

Village officers.

Tahad	Zail.	No. of villages. Annual land revenue.	Prevailing caste or tribe.
Tahsil Jhang.	Kot Isa Sháh Chhattá, Bakhshá Laú Sháh Jíwana Kot Khán Saliána Masson Pír Kot Sadhána Dhídoána Chund Bharwána Pípalwála Ratta Matta Kot Sultán Khíwa Mukhiána Pakka Naulán Jhang Basti Gházi Sháh Dhúín Muhammad Haveli Bahádar Sháh Wású Asthána Máchhíwál Kot Shákir Belá Shahr Márí Sháh Sakhira	15 10,133 11 4,938 24 4,831 14 5,610 13 5,772 16 5,846 10 5,459 28 8,329 13 6,464 17 5,970 12 4,906 5 1,499 9 3,945 8 4,743 13 4,705 5 8,780 15 4,709 7 5,170 9 2,309 31 12,780 26 8,300 8 5,995 6 3,635	Baloches, Bhons, Patháns, Khokhars, Dhúdhís, Awáns, Sayads, Jaisaks, Bhuttás, Siprás, Kureshis and Láng. Baloches (Gádís), Vinpáls, Dinárs and Kureshis. Haidahans, Gopáls, Kaulars, Khokhars, Dhúdhís, Baloches, Kádís. Sayads, Akerás, Jhabánas, Hindu Arorás. Akerás, Mals, Báhars, Siáls, Sayads and Sajokás. Siáls, Turks, Arorás, Kureshís and Chelas. Siáls, Arorás, Khatrís, Baloches, Kalásans, Sayads, Khokhars, Saliánas, Kureshís and Bráhmans. Siáls, Kureshís, Sayads, Arorás, Baloches, Jat Jhabánas, Arorás, Siáls, Saliánas, Dirájs, Kureshís, Sadhánas, Mirjánas, Maghiánas, Khichíánas, and Khokhars. Siáls, Sayads, Daultánas, Kureshís, Bálís and Bharwánas. Siáls, Chuchkánas, Kauriánas, Lakhnánas, and Sayads. Sayads, Jogerás, Bhattís, Bharwánas and Sámbhals. Bhattís. Bhochrás, Arorás, Sayads, Jogerás, Bharwánas and Sámbhals. Nauls, Daukás, Pátoánás, Nekokáras, Jandránas and Sayads. Nauls, Daukás, Pátoánás, Nekokáras, Maghiánas, Khojás and Hasnánas. Siáls, Arorás, Nekokárás, Maghiánas, Khatrís, Lak Badhars, Vijhlánas, Viraks, Hirájs and Baloches. Khojás, Arorás, Siáls, Dirájs, Baloches, Bharwánas and Sayads. Sargánas, Gagránas, Sayads, Chaddhars, Kureshís and Arorás. Chelas, Arorás, Baloches, Sayads and Kureshís. Baloches, Siáls, Arorás, Bhuránas, Sayads and Kureshís. Baloches, Siáls, Arorás, Bhuránas, Sayads and Kureshís. Baloches, Siáls, Khokhars and Arorás. Akerás and Bharokas. Baloches, Sayads and Guráhs.
Tahsfl Chiniot.	Kot Sultán Núrpur Pípal Barána Thatti Bálárája Lalián Do	10 2,178 19 8,330 8 3,735 7 3,774 7 3,352	Bhattis. Sangras, Chaddhars, Sayads, Bhattis and Khokhars. Sámbhals and Bhattis. Sayads, Khatris, Sámbhals and Kharals. Sayads and Lális. Kalas, Lális, Chaddhars, Khokhars and Harals.

Village communities and tenures.
Village officers.

Tahsil.	Zail.	No. of villages.	Annual land revenue.	Prevailing caste or tribe.
ncluded.	Lalián Kharkin Kot Amír Sháh Kándíwál Langar Makhdúm	11 15 22 16 14	2,876 5,658 4,723 4,348	Lálís, Khatrís, Khojás and Khokhars. Harals, Sayads and Khatrís. Sayads, Nekokáras, Nissoánas, Siprás and Lolás. Nissoánas, Khatrís and Máraths. Gilotars, Gondals, Khatrís, Ríháns,
Tahsil Chiniot-concluded.	Gadhlánwáli Táhli Mangíní Bhoánáh Kurk Muhammadi Rajoá Chiniot	14 7	6,236 7,010 14,572 5,460 7,308	Khojás, Nissoánas and Bhattís. Gilotars, Sargánas, Sayads, Harals and Nekokáras. Chaddhars, Sayads, Siprás and Khatrís. Jappas, Chaddhars, Rajokás and Siprás. Kharals, Khatrís, Sambhals, Sajjanke, Kangars, Khokhars and Nitharkes. Sayads, Khatrís, Harals, Khokhars and Saláras. Khojás, Khatrís, Bráhmans, Kázís.
	Morádwála Kot Khuda Yár Shekh Harse	22 20 9	4,476 3,708	Nekokáras and Sayads. Harals, Siprás and Khatrís. Khokhars, Harals, Sayads and Arorás. Gújars, Harals, Sayads, Asís and Nekokáras.
Tahsil Shorkot,	Káim Bharwánah Sádik Nihang Alah Yár Jútá Badh Rajbána Shorkot Kakkíkohna Kharánwála Jalálpur Dabkalán Kund Sargána Ahmadpur Ranjít Kot Sultán Báhú Garh Máhárája Hassú Balel Uch Haweli Bahádur Sháh	77 88 12 8 6 111 99 122 144 100 9 13 8 8 20 12 6	6,525 7,125 8,910 6,007 5,990 6,625 6,300 7,541 3,829 9,063 10,544 3,926 6,507 9,670 8,261	Siáls and Bharwánahs. Káthíás, Arorás, Siáls and Baloches. Jútás, Kureshís, Nekokáras and Baloches. Siáls, Rajbánas, Chaddhars, Kureshís and Sayads. Khatrís, Patháns, Jats and Siáls. Káthíás, Siáls, Kureshís and Sayads. Janjiánas, Surbánas and Baloches. Kamlánas, Kureshís and Traggars. Dabs, Sayads, Siáls, Káthíás and Hirájs. Sargánas, Chaddhars, Sayads and Nekokáras. Siáls, Sayads, Baloches and Arorás. Kureshís, Sials and Chaddhars. Awáns, Bhidwáls, Sayads, Kureshís and Siáls. Siáls and Baloches. Kureshís, Baloches, Siáls and Sayads. Sayads, Baloches, Arorás and Sayads. Sayads, Baloches, Arorás and Siáls. Kureshís, Siáls and Sayads.

Tenants and rent.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1878-79, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in 1881-82. But the accuracy of both sets of figures is probably doubtful; indeed, it is impossible to state general rent-rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district. The prevailing rent-rates, as ascertained at the Settlement of 1880, are shown at page 86. The figures on the next page show the cultivated area of the district distributed between proprietors, middlemen, and tenants by holdings and area. Similar figures arranged by castes have already been given in Section C of this Chapter (page 60).

Chapter III, D.

Village communities and tenures.

Tenants and rent.

Tahsil.	Class of cultivators.	Actuals.	Percen- tage.	Number of cultivators.
Chiniot.	Number of holdings Total acres cultivated Cultivated by proprietors Cultivated by taraddadkärs Cultivated by hereditary tenants Cultivated by non-hereditary tenants	15,717 99,126 42,560 2,556 2,341 51,669	100· 43· 3· 2· 52·	14,054 6,056 333 483 7,182
Jhang.	Number of holdings Total acres cultivated Cultivated by proprietors Cultivated by turaddadkars Cultivated by hereditary tenants Cultivated by non-hereditary tenants	23,042 136,091 6,273 3,383 2,321 67,655	100° 46° 2° 2° 50°	19,836 11,014 390 440 7,992
Shorkot.	Number of holdings Total acres cultivated Cultivated by proprietors Cultivated by taraddadkirs Cultivated by hereditary tenants Cultivated by non-hereditary tenants	11,132 97,082 43,023 1,253 2,418 50,388	100· 44· 1· 3· 52·	11,293 5,461 145 335 5,352
District.	Number of holdings	49,891 332,299 148,316 7,191 7,080 169,712	100· 45· 2· 2· 51·	45,183 22,531 868 1,258 20,526

More than half the cultivated area of the district is in the hands of the tenants-at-will, but it must be remembered that a considerable portion of the area thus shown is cultivated by co-sharers as tenants of the other proprietors. In some portions of the district, especially where property is held on ancestral shares, a couple of sharers, or even one, cultivate a well in which their share is very small, their shares in other wells being held by other sharers. The produce of the well so occupied is taken, and the revenue paid by the occupant alone. The ancestral shares are not acted on. The produce of the other wells jointly held is similarly taken, and the revenue paid by the occupant-sharers. Instances also exist where the revenue is paid according to shares, but each sharer takes the produce of the joint property he occupies without reference to the proprietary shares.

Occupancy tenants.

There is hardly anything to note about occupancy tenants beyond what has been written above. The area occupied by this class is very small, and except in the villages of the Kálowál pargana transferred to this district in 1861, they pay at much the same rates as tenants-at-will. The right is not much valued, and during the recent Settlement many occupancy tenants voluntarily abandoned their rights. In the Kálowál iláka the occupancy tenants generally pay the assessment, plus a málikána. Of this portion of the district Mr. Ousely writes:—

"The heavy assessment of the Sikh times had quite trampled out proprietary rights, and artizans and village servants and proprietors all paid the Government revenue by an equal rate levied, generally speaking, on the number of ploughs supplied by each man. In these parts of the district cultivators of long standing were recorded as owners of the land in their occupancy, and they paid their revenue at the village revenue rates. They had of course no proprietary title in any of the village lands except what was in their actual possession as cultivators."

The proprietors of the district cannot be congratulated on their tenants-at-will. Those of Chiniot are best off; though even there it is no easy matter to obtain tenants for Utár and Bár wells. It is never difficult to obtain tenants for the easily cultivated sailab lands and the wells of the Hithár. There is, in fact, a competition for these lands in some portions of the district. But in the Bár, and especially in the Kachhi circles, the tenants are a poor unsettled class, with an indifferent reputation for industry. In the Kachhi this has been the normal condition of tenants for many years. Mr. Monckton wrote of them:—

"The non-hereditary cultivators are in no way attached to the soil; on the contrary, they are continually on the move, either from the well cultivation to the sailab, or from bad to fertile soils. Even proprietors often quit their estates to join their brotherhoods in the Khángarh district to take to the easier cultivation near canals; or else they move off to the Kachcha of the Leiah district in seasons when the Indus may have fertilised by its deposit a tract larger than ordinary. Even the owners show but little attachment to their properties."

This is exactly what is still going on. Before the excellent rains of 1878, the Kachhi had been almost descrted by tenants-at-will, and the tract had seriously deteriorated. Many wells had fallen out of work, and many villages had been given large reductions in assessment. Since, the Kachhi has recovered in the most wonderful way, is still improving, and the tenants are coming back. But let another series of bad years come, and they will fly off in scores to the canals of Muzaffargarh, the sailàba of the Indus, and the labour market of Mooltan. The tenant in the Bar tract is less migratory, but in seasons of scarcity he too deserts for the sailàb of the Rávi and the Mooltan canals. Almost all these tenants are in receipt of takàvi advances, and the position of a landlord of assessed land cultivated by such restless persons is not to be envied.

In the upland villages a landlord, when he entertains a new tenant, almost always gives him an advance of money, or bullocks and seed to enable him to commence cultivating. These advances are known as $tak \hat{u}vi$. The money advances recorded at the recent Settlement are given below, with the number of holdings and other information:—

Tahsil.		Num	ber of	Takari	Land held by tenants.						
			Holdings.	Tenants.	advance.	Cultiva- ted.	Fallow.	Unculti-	Total.		
Jhang			361 2,311 1,210	416 1,998 1,5 5 2	15,370 60,967 85,529	2,785 13,509 12,449	480 3,834 4,891	869 11,467 15,441	4,134 25,810 32,781		
District			3,892	3,966	1,11,866	28,743	9,205	27,777	65,725		

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Village communities and tenures.

Tenants at-will.

Takàvi advances,

Chapter III, D.

Village communities and tenures.

Takávi advances.

The amount of takári here shown does not include any advances except of money. The landlord's theory with regard to these advances is that the tenant cannot leave his service until they are repaid. As a matter of fact, tenants very often do not pay, and leave on the slightest provocation. A bad season, the loss of bullocks, better terms offered by another landlord, are each a sufficient inducement to them to leave their old masters. If a tenant does leave, the proprietor has no remedy. It is not worth while suing him for the amount due, that would be simply sending good money after bad debts. What with the capital expended on wells, the money advanced in takávi, and the inferior quality of the tenantry, the cultivation of their lands is, for landlords of upland villages in this district, a most expensive undertaking. the area cultivated by tenants-at-will nearly one-half is held by Jats, one-sixth by Kamíns, one-eighth by Siáls, and one-sixteenth by miscellaneous Muhammadans. The large proportion held by Kamins speaks volumes for the character of such cultivation.

Rent rates.

It remains to notice the shares upon which the produce of the land is divided between the proprietor and the tenant. The statement below will indicate how remarkably high the rent rate in this district is. The figures are taken from the Assessment Reports of the recent Settlement:—

Tahsil.	Total area held on kind rents.	Area held by tenant- paying half-produce with percentage on total area.	
Chin10t	61,827	89,056 53	· 4 3
Jhang	96,404	76,516 79	·47
Shorkot	57,791	53,831 93	•49
District .	216,022	163,493	·46

More detailed figures are given in the table on the opposite page.

Probably there is not a district in the province where the rate of batái is so high. On sailáb lands the rate is invariably one-half. On the better class of sailab lands in the Jhang tahsil it is even customary to exact a small fee from the incoming tenant for permission to cultivate, and it is a well-known fact that throughout the district there is never any difficulty in procuring tenants for fairly good sailáb lands. On sailáb lands half batái does really mean half the produce after defraying the necessary kamiána, &c., charges. On well lands half-produce rents are nominal. With few exceptions one-third is the share of the produce taken by the landlord of china, kangni, mandua, melons and tobacco. It is not customary for the three first-named crops to be grown together on the same well, but one or other is almost invariably cultivated. Melons, except near towns, belong entirely to the cultivator. Practically the tenant can cut as much green wheat and jowár to feed the well bullocks as is necessary. There is really no limit. Similarly the whole of the turnip crop is his. It is only where the crop or roots are sold that the proprietor takes his share; otherwise all that he takes is a marla or two of

	20	i	l	1	1921 7 72111 0	8	43	504	2,044	10	102	222	2,189
		-			Other rates.	1	- m			<u> </u>			
	13			after	-44	82	448	27	199	58	538	167	1,185
80.	18	XIST.		ictors,	1 × ½ (yovt, de-	284	3,322	137	1,371	115	877	536	5,570
of 18	17	D TO E	nd.	y propr	cd.	3,561	741 21,591	1,276	12,852	42	408	4,879	34,851
ement	16	FOUN	In kind	aken b f Kaml	en pa	901	741	117	298	48	623	265	2,231 34,851
s Settl	15	F RENT		re of grain taken by propr deduction of Kamin's fees	cito	164	1,418	368	2,035	:	:	532	3,450
at the	14	MENT O		Share of grain taken by proprietors, after deduction of Kamhu's fees.	1,2	182	1,208	95	525	106	1,419	385	3,145
Classified abstract of Tenants' Holdings in the several Tahsils, prepared at the Settlement of 1880.	13	MODE OF PAYMENT OF RENT FOUND TO EXIST.		50.	-401	5,075	33,056	14,627	76,516	6,265	53,831	25,967	1,63,403
istls, 1	12	Mon	a ber	essi e'ni) et]) I'' (116) at (11.		11.],,,(
al Tal	11		ash.	e rate na,	naverena A derena	252	1,523	55	155	4	11	308	1,689
; sever	10		In cash.	rates	At Revenue only.	136	199	9	67	:	:	132	069
in the	6	vated	cultir.	f total stagants	Percentage of area hold by	26.8	50.4	:	.99	:	55.7	÷	:
Ioldings	œ	.bai:	a ai 31	aiyeq et.	Total of tenan	9,458	61,627	16,852	96,404	6,644	57,791	32,954	2,384 $2,16,022$
ınts' E	7	ash.	ıs ni B	nizsq et.	Total of tenan	378	2,184	8	189	4	=	442	2,384
of Tenc	9	Tenants with-	occupancy.	•	Rents in kind	9,058	58,565	15,816	88,704	6,228	53,572	31,102	1,063 2,00,841
stract	5	Tenan out r	occui		Cash rents.	137	1,029	5	34	:	:	136	1,063
fed al	4	ights	pancy.	•1	Rents in kind	700	3,262	(7,700	416	4,219	1,852	1,321 15,181
Classi	ಣ	Tenants with rights	of occupancy		Cash rents.	251	1,155	51	155	4	=	306	1,321
- 1	i					· :	: 1	· · ·	: 1	- :	i		-

Jhang. | Chiniot. | Name of parganah.

Chapter III, D. Village com-munities and tenures. Rent rates.

Village communities and tenures.

Rent rates.

Chapter III, D. green wheat and a bundle or two of turnips. Both china and turnips are consequently very favourite crops with the tenant-atwill, and he half lives on turnips during the cold weather. inferior wells, where the water is very distant or the soil not good, the tenant contrives under various pretences to extort other allowances. He insists upon one or two marlás being allowed him for his spiritual adviser (pir), and the same amount for his daughter's children, who are supposed to have certain claims upon him. On some wells the tenant gets one-eighth of the proprietor's half share, called athog. The word athog is now-a-days often used to mean allowances of this nature, though more or less than one-eighth. On others, instead of the athog, a kanál of the standing crop is allowed. The tenant takes care that this kanal is the very best on the well. Jowár and barley are specially liable to the pilfering attacks of the tenants. By the time jowar ripens the tenant's stock of grain is exhausted, and he commences to plack the ears and scorch and eat the grain as soon as it is ready. The stalks are chewed as a kind of inferior sugarcane. When the jowúr ripens and the grain is divided on the threshing floor, the tenant, by threats and entreaties, generally manages to cajole or swindle the proprietor out of his rightful share. The same course takes place in reference to barley. The tenant begins to pluck the ears long before he thinks of dividing the produce. The women walk through the fields and pinch off the ripest ears. The earliest and latest cotton-pickings belong to the tenant. If he reaps the wheat, he is paid the regular reaper's wage, contrary to the general custom in the Province. There are only two portions of the district where the prevailing rent rate is other than one-half the produce. In the Halkíwáh circle in Chiniot and in the Utár Vichanh circle of Jhang, the prevailing rate is one-third. In the Halkíwáh the comparative lowness of the rent-rate is due to the cultivation of the more profitable crops of sugarcane and Indian corn, that require more labour on the cultivator's part. In the Utár Vichanh it is due to the inferior quality of the soil and the difficulty with which cultivators are induced to take up tenancies on the wells. Takávi is just as common in the Utár Vichanh as elsewhere.

Landlord's right to bhúsa.

There is a considerable amount of ferment in the Jhang tahsil where Kirár landlords are more common than elsewhere, regarding the question of dividing bhúsa. Of course in the case of a tenantat-will the matter is one of agreement pure and simple. If the landlord wants a share of the bhusa and the tenant refuses to give it, the landlord can eject, and if the converse is the case, the tenant can give notice. The importance of the question lies in its relation to taulukdár preprietors and hereditary tenants. On sailáb and well lands, before the recent Settlement commenced, no fixed share of wheat bhúsa was ever taken by any landlord throughout the district. If any exceptions existed (as they do to most rules), they were to be found in the Jhang tahsil, and there were probably special circumstances (e.g., very good soil and a grasping landlord, &c.) that explained each instance. All that the landlord took was two or three large bundles (trangars) per holding, if he wanted

them. These loads of bhùsa were taken at various times, not necessarily at harvest. The demand was limited by the wants of the landlord. If he had enough bhitsa of his own, he probably took nothing from his tenant. On sailab lands the landlord generally took bhùsa, but rarely on wells. It was left with the tenant on the tacit understanding that it was to be consumed on the well. It is more to the landlord's interest that the well bullocks should be well fed and strong, and that his tenant should be kept in a good humour, than that he should have seven or eight more maunds of fodder in his bhùsa stock. It is a condition of most annual leases in England that no straw is to be sold off the farm. Missa bhùsa, i. e., that of màsh, mung and moth, is generally divided. Many instances will be found where the landlord never has taken his share of this bhitsa; but at the same time the landlord's right to take a share has never been really disputed, at any rate so far as concerns the general practice and feeling of the district. Missa bhúsa is exceptionally good fodder, and horses are very fond of it. Hence horse-breeding landlords usually took the same share of the bhúsa as they did of the grain.

hathràdhì, ràhak, or kàma. The lichhàin tenant is not a farm

Home farm cultivation is termed hathradh, and a farm labourer Agricultural labourers and lichhàin tenants.

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labourer. A lichhuin tenant is provided with a pair of bullocks by the proprietor, and takes half of the tenant's share of the produce allotted to his yoke, the other half being taken by the proprietor of the bullocks. Sometimes the lichhain finds half the seed, but more generally he gives nothing but his labour. A farm labourer is kept in clothes and shoes and tobacco. He gets a blanket in the cold weather. His ordinary clothes allowance is 1 loin cloth (majhla). 1 chaddar (utla), and 1 turban (pag). As to food, if the man is a bachelor, he gets his two meals a day, if married, he is allowed 4 pài of wheat or 5 pài of mixed grain,—chìna, barley, gram, and wheat per month. A farm labourer is also paid never less than 8 annas cash a month, often 12 annas or even more. He gets as much tobacco as he likes. The proprietor's barber trims his hair, and his clothes are washed by the proprietor's dhobi. These Kàmàs are as troublesome and grumble as much about their food as "men in the house" on an English farm. Keeping farm servants is very expensive during years of distress or high prices, and they do not at all sympathise with the proprietor's endeavours to economise by substituting china and other flour for that of wheat. But it is not customary to employ hired field-labourers, and they are very few in number, probably not more than one or one-and-a-half per cent. of the population. They are generally non-Jats who practice no craft, but get their living entirely in this way. As there is usually a considerable demand for labour, there is no fear of their starving if they will work; and so long as they are in employ they are well off. But the nature of their wages prevents their saving anything. They live better, that is, they have better food, than the poorer agriculturists who cultivate their own land, or the tenants-at-will paying bath. They are generally unmarried, and without encumbrances. Some further particulars regarding the employment and pay of agricultural labourers will be found in

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Chapter IV, page 120, where the division of crops is treated of. The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, but the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

tenures. Kamins' fees.

The Kamins proper, radde Kamin as they are called, are the potter, the carpenter, the blacksmith, and the barber. The mochi and the dhobi are not included, as they are not always paid out of the grain heap. The fees of the Kamins proper are usually partly fixed per well and partly proportionate to the well produce. common mode of payment is one sheaf (pili) + 1 bundle (gadda)+ 2 topàs per kharwar. A pùlì contains about 8 topàs (15 seers) of grain, and a gadda is half the size. The barber is paid less than the other three. His allowance is often docked of the gadda. The carpenter generally obtains an additional fee of from 3 to 6 topds per well on account of the sticks, (arerian) on which each well pot is strung, that he has to furnish. The Chuhra is another important Kamin, but his fees are lumped as a winnowing fee (hak chhajji), and he is not included in the vadde Kamban, Kambas proper. There are also a number of miscellaneous fees. The weighman (dharwài) gets from 2 topàs per kharwàr to half a topà. Two topàs are the usual The watchman's (muhassil) fee is not universal. The tenant is supposed to be responsible for watch and ward, but the proprietor often finds it profitable to have his own watchman, and if he is appointed, his pay is defrayed from the joint heap. The fee varies from 2 topàs to 4 topàs per kharvàr. If 4 topàs, the fee becomes proprietary in character, for the landlord takes it and pays the muhassil what he thinks fit. Bhàra or kiràya (carriage fee) is another perquisite of the landlord. It represents the cost of delivering the grain at the landlord's house. Two topas per kharwar is the average rate, but both more and less is taken. With regard to both these last fees it should be noted that they depend on the relations subsisting between the tenant and the landlord. If the soil is good and the landlord liberal (there are landlords and landlords), the tenant does not object to his showing cff by taking a heavy carriage and watchman's fee, but if the landlord is hard and the well not a very good one, both fees will The tenant often refuses to cultivate if a muhassil is appointed. The landlord has to gave way, and so indirectly recognises the right of the tenant to pilfer on a bad well. The priest (mulla) in charge of the village mosque (masjid), the boatman (mallah), the well-sinker (tobah), the herdsman (chhera), are also paid small fees from the grain heap. More rarely the village bard (piràhì, miràsi), the drummer (nagàrchi), the baker (màchhi), the proprietors agent (naukar), get fees. The religious and charitable Religious and chari- fees are composed of the rasúl arwahi, usually 1 topa per kharwar taken by the Mullah, who looks after the spiritual welfare of the village. A small fee is often allowed in addition for the maintenances of the mosque. Almost invariably a payment, small in amount, is allowed for the support of the most favourite or nearest shrine. In some villages the allowances to shrines are considerable.

table fees.

The allowances noted above are those paid at the wheat harvest. The Kamins get very little at the kharif. The kharif crop on a well consists of cotton, jowar, and china. If the grain crops are harvested and give a fair outturn, the Kamins proper are given a little. There are certain nominal rates, but as a matter of fact, the kharif kamiana payments depend entirely on the outturn. If the jowar and china fail, or yield but little grain, the Kamins get no grain, but are allowed a little cotton instead. The rabi is by far the most important harvest, and it is the wheat crop that has to defray the kamiana charges.

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Village communities and tenures.

Kamins' and other charges at the kharif.

heavy. It must be remembered that the maintenance of the well-gear and wood-work, the repairs to all agricultural implements, the supply of well pots, thatching charges, and house repairs, are all included in the kamiàna. Besides their legitimate work, the Kamìns have to make themselves useful in a multitude of ways. They plough if wanted, run errands, carry messages, cut wood and draw water. They are highly prized, and are well treated. It is a common saying among the people, that it is better for a lambardár to be congratulated on the fact that a fresh Kamìn has settled in his village, than that a son has been born to him. Any Kamìn settling in a new village would be given a house at once by the lambardár, or if there was not one available, a new one would be at once made, the lambardár supplying the wood and materials.

The kamiàna expenses on wells in this district are exceedingly. The incidence of the y. It must be remembered that the maintenance of the kamiàna charges on a well.

The last two lines of Table No. XXXIV of the Revenue Administration Report show that there are no persons holding service grants from the village held free of revenue. But even if this be the case, this is by no means the only form which these grants assume. Sometime the land is leased to the grantee at a favourable rent, or on condition of payment of revenue only; sometimes the owner cultivates and pays the revenue, making over a portion or even the whole of the produce to the grantee; while occasionally the grant consists of the rights of property in the land, which, subject to the usual incidents, such as responsibility for revenue and the like, vest in the person performing certain specified services at such time and for so long as he performs them. These grants are most commonly made to attendants at temples, mosques, shrines, so long as they perform the duties of the post, and for maintenance of monasteries, holy men,

Village servants they are, and occasionally have to endure rough treatment and hardships, but they are a far too valuable element in the village community for the lambardár or proprietors to oppress them in any extraordinary manner. They also get, in addition to grain fees, bundles of fodder from the wells in season. Most of them keep a cow or a small flock of sheep and goats. It is a mistake to suppose, as is often done, that they are a miserable,

down-trodden, poverty-stricken set of men.*

Petty village grantees.

^{*} Appendix 8 to Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report shows the kamiana fees in a river and an upland village in Shorkot. They mount to 23-2 and 20-0 per cent. of the gross produce respectively.

Village communities and tenures.

Poverty or wealth of the proprietors. teachers at religious schools, and the like. The fees paid for these purposes have been noticed above, together with Kamín's dues, at pages 90 and 91.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA show the operations of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious; and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. The subject is discussed at some length at pages 493 for the Famine Report of 1879, where actual figures are given for instances selected as typical. In forwarding those figures, the Settlement Officer wrote as follows:—

"I believe that from 40 to 50 per cent. of owners and 60 to 70 per cent. of tenants-at-will are in debt. There are very few occupancy tenants in this district. I am of opinion that in the case of owners their average indebtedness is about 25 per cent. of their income, and in the case of tenants 50 per cent. Owner's debts are usually due to improvident expenditure on marriages and funerals, or to failures of harvest. What keeps the debt from being paid off is the ruinous rate of interest charged. An ordinary zamíndár always, or almost always, lives up to his income. A harvest fails, and he has to borrow money to support himself and pay the revenue. The important harvest in this district is the rable. If the rabi is a failure, the proprietor will not be able to pay off any, or only very little, of the debt until the following rabi. Meanwhile the debt has increased by one quarter, at 25 per cent. per annum interest. how the zamindár gets into debt, and hardly ever gets out of it. Another fruitful cause of debt is the expenditure attendant on a civil case. Another, the payment of fines imposed in criminal cases. The people of this district are notorious cattle thieves. Hospitality and charity ruin a few. It is instructive to consider the indebtedness of the different There is only one Sayad in the whole district who is out of The Sials in the Shorkot tahsil are generally in debt; in Jhang many Sials are well-to-do, prosperous agriculturists, and the proportion of the tribe that is involved in debt is comparatively small. Hindú cultivators are seldom in debt. Jats are, as a class, not very much in Most will be slightly in debt, but the amount will be small. It is a common practice here for a zamindar to mortgage his well and build another with the money. Tenants-at-will are, as a rule, only indebted to the amount of takávi, or advance which they receive from the landlord. In fact, no bania would lend them anything, for they can give no security for it. The only property worth attachment is their share of the produce, and this is an uncertain and fluctuating quantity. At times persons of this class are put to great straits for their livelihood, for if the harvest is a failure, they have nothing to fall back upon. Takávi advances which they obtain from the landlord, vary in amount from Rs. 10 to Rs. 75, and the tenant is supposed not to leave until he has repaid the advance; but he often does leave without repaying. The instances of agriculturists, which I submit in tabular form, are few; but I had great difficulty in obtaining these few. The first is a good instance of a small proprietor cultivating his own land. The second is an instance of a prosperous zamíndár cultivating a first class well. The third is an instance of a well-to-do tenant, and the fourth of

an impoverished tenant-at-will. It is hardly possible to show in the statement to what extent a poor cultivator supports himself on turnips, carrots, and various herbs called sag. During the hot weather the fruit of the ber tree and the pila bush largely supplement his daily food. In some portions of the district he lives chiefly on milk. As a rule, tenants-at-will live a hand-to-mouth existence; the produce of one harvest barely enabling them to subsist until the next."

The statement below gives statistics collected at the recent Settlement regarding the extent to which transfers of land have taken place in the district:—

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Poverty or wealth of the proprietors.

Transfers of land: their origin, and the lesson they teach.

SALES.

	Details.	ils. Area.						Incidence.						
Tabail.	Period.	Trans- fers.	Culti- vated.	Unculti- vated.	Total.	Price.	Jama.	Per a	icre.	Per r of Ja	upe	e		
						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	AP	Rs.	A	P		
Chiniot.	Before 1856 Since ,,	·i28	1,632	 1,861	3,493	39,518	992	iı	5 0	59	13	5		
Jhang.	Before 1856 Since ,,	829 1,168	13,786 10,374	17,527 12,803	31,313 23,177	1,04,346 3,00,238	11,861 7,933	3 12	5 1 15 3	.7	12 13	9		
Shorkot.	Before 1856 Since ,,	630	5,229	 8,418	13,647	1,49,171	4,115	·io	14 11	. 36	4,	ó		
District.	Before 1856 Since ,,	829 1,926	13,786 17,235	17,527 23,082	31,313 40,317	1,04,346 4,88,927	11,861 13,040	3 12	5 4 2 0	.8 3 7	12	9 10		

MORTGAGES.

-	Details.			Area.					Incidence,						
Tahsil.	Period.	Trans- fers.	Culti- vated.	Unculti- vated.	Total	Price.	Jama.	Per s	cre		Porm of Ja	npe	е 		
£.						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	A	P	Rs.	A	P		
Chiniot.	Before 1856 Since "	257 388	2,347 4,350	2,705 4,494	5,052 8,844	44,753 71,751	1,896 3,351	8 8	13	9 10	$\frac{21}{22}$		7		
Jhang.	Before 1856 Since ,,	2,482 2,585	27,529 16,882	24,913 16,443	52,442 33,325	2,63,770 4,57,259	23,848 12,616	5 13	0 11	6	11 36	2 3	0 11		
Shorkot.	Before 1856 Since ,,	630 95S	4,045 7,452	5,981 8,023	10,026 , 15,475	92,804 2,08,726	4,028 6,532	9 13		10	23 31	0 15	8 3		
District.	Before 1856 Since ,,	3,369 3,931	33,921 28, 684	33,599 25,900	67,520 57,644	461,728 7,37,737	29,771 22,409	5 12	15	1 9		7 12	8 7		

On these figures Mr. Steedman makes the following instructive remarks, which describe the degree of indebtedness of the Jhang

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landowners, and the reasons which, in Mr. Steedman's opinion, have caused that indebtedness:—

"According to the figures of the sale statement, the price land has been fetching on the average during the last twenty years is about 38 years' purchase of the rent taken by Government. The two statements convey two pieces of information: 1st, the extent to which land has changed hands, and is encumbered; 2nd, what a purchaser or mortgagee has given for the privilege of taking the proprietary share of the produce and paying one rupee of the Government demand. From these facts conclusions can be drawn as to the pressure of the Government demand. It is easy to grasp the fact that so many acres of land assessed at so much revenue have been transferred, and to infer that the owners of the land must have been compelled through want of cash to consent to the transfer. Whether the pecuniary difficulties that gave rise to the transfer were the result of the land assessment or not, is quite a different matter. If it were a generally true proposition that the indebtedness of agricultural classes is due to the pressure of the land revenue, one would expect to find the most transfers and the heaviest encumbrances in villages where the demand is highest, and the smallest number in good villages assessed lightly. But, as a matter of fact, when one descends into details, experience teaches that good villages lightly assessed are most burdened with debt. We have not to go far for the reason: zamíndárs are thievish, generally quarrelsome. and always litigious. The jama is light and the land is good. bankers are only too willing to lend money on such excellent security. Their morals are not shocked, whether the creditor spends it in paying fines imposed by a magistrate, or defraying the costs of a civil suit, or squanders it in debauchery. They know the land is fertile, and that the revenue dues chargeable to the proprietary share are light. It may be objected that it is unfair to generalise from a few instances furnished by individual villages. Let us therefore take the different circles as units. Here again it will be at once discovered that the richest circles furnish the most mortgages. Yet it may be said that the best lands are the most heavily assessed. Undoubtedly, but the surplus produce after payment of the land revenue is always much larger than in the case of poor villages. The extra few annas an acre that are imposed on good villages, as compared with poorer villages in the same circles, do not nearly represent the difference in the returns from the two classes of villages. It is so both in theory and in practice. Government assessment being equal, as I estimate, to 1 th share of the produce, then where the assessment is high the amount of the remaining 9 will be greater than where it is low. I have already noted the tendency of modern assessments to let off good villages too lightly and tax bad ones too heavily. Why the demand for mortgages of the best lands should be most effective, is clear enough; but why should the proprietors of these lands be obliged to mortgage their property? How is the necessity brought about? What often does take place is this. When the owner of a good well or a fat piece of sailab deals with a baniah who is anxious to hold some land in mortgage, he finds that his credit is unlimited. It is a case of spending made easy. He can have whatever he wants whenever he wishes. All that he is troubled with is his signature or assent to the usual six monthly statement of accounts, and at harvest time he will make a few payments to the baniah in This goes on for 4 or 5 years, or often longer. Then the demeanour of the creditor changes. He insists upon a registered bond for the amount due or a mortgage. The debtor temporises as long as he can, perhaps transfers his account to another shop, often takes his chance of a law suit, trusting in his luck to evade some of the items. All these devices fail, and he makes over a share in his property on a verbal lekka mukhi contract to his creditor. This is probably the very worst thing he could do. A lekha mukhidar is as hardly displaced as was the old man of the sea. The zamindár never goes into the account, and is fleeced in every possible way. Instead of growing less the debt grows larger, and a mortgage is at last gained. I have already explained the status of a mortgagee. He steps into the proprietor's place, takes the proprietary share of the produce, hak bhutàri, and pays the revenue, somesmall fee in kind only being retained by the mortgagor to mark his rights. The fact, therefore, that the lands of any village or circle are heavily mortgaged is no reason for lowering the assessment. To reduce the Government demand is to put so much more money in the mortgagee's pockets. On the contrary the existence of a large number of mortgages, the incidence of the mortgage money per cultivated acre and per rupee of jama being high, denotes a large surplus left to the mortgagees out of the proprietor's share of the produce after payment of the Government dues, and warrants a high assessment. It may be urged, where only a portion of a zamíndár's land is mortgaged, that it will be the easier for him to redeem, the lighter the assessment is pitched. Mortgages are sometimes paid off, it is true, but not many, and the amount of land mortgaged is increasing so steadily that it is impossible to act upon such an argument.

"As far as this district is concerned, there is, as far as my experience and the statement of sales go, nothing to show that the original proprietors are being rapidly expropriated. I should say that sales to baniahs pure and simple are few. The policy and class sympathies of Sawan Mal resulted in the acquisition by Hindús of large properties in virtue of purchase, mortgage, direct grant, and hàthrakhài. Many of these men have now given up trading, but many also practise their original calling in addition to managing their landed property. These are the chief purchasers of land. That land is highly valued is shown by the statements, and how rapidly it is increasing in value is a matter of daily conversation, a still surer test.

"The zamindars in Chiniot are most free from debt, and those of Indebtedness of the Jhang the most embarrassed. Shorkot holds an intermediate position. agricultural classes, In the Settlement Records 111 lakhs of mortgage and 11 lakhs of lekha mukhì are recorded. To charge the old assessment with being the author of all this indebtedness is, I cannot phrase it otherwise, sheer nonsense. Consider for a moment what the incidences per acre of cultivation and per well of the old assessments were, the increase that has been taken by the new assessments and their incidence. Remember the great rise that has taken place in the price of agricultural produce, and the infinitely greater luxury and comfort enjoyed by all agriculturists except the lowest, as compared with their condition at annexation. Our system of revenue collection is to some extent answerable for agricultural debt, but the real and true cause of all our woe was the mistaken and misplaced gift of full transferable proprietary right in land to the cultivator, and with it of a vast credit only limited by the value of that proprietary right. It is only of late that there has been an awakening to the true facts of the case, but that the cause stated is the true one, I have not the slightest doubt. The thrifty and unembarrassed zamindárs of this district can be counted up on one's

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Are the agriculturists becoming expropriated?

its causes and aspects.

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Indebtedness of the agricultural classes, its causes and aspects.

fingers. So long as a zamíndár has credit, so long will he borrow, and so long as he borrows, shall we find our annual returns of land transfers slowly but surely and steadily increasing. The sole basis of his credit is his transferable property in the land. Take this away, and all the security that the money-lender has is the annual outturn of the crops. In such case we should not hear of zamindars being thousands of rupees in debt. Their credit would shrink, and their debts too. numbers of villages along-side the Bár, east of Kot Isa Sháh, in which there is hardly a single mortgage. Why? Because cultivation is uncertain, and the mortgagee might find the mortgaged well abandoned in a few months, and himself left saddled with the revenue. It is not good enough. Here the zamindars have no credit, and they are not in debt, except to a small amount. You do not find tenants-at-will over head-and-ears in debt. They are in debt, it is true, but the limit is the amount that the baniah considers is pretty certain to be repaid to him at the next harvest. That the conferment of proprietary right in the soil has really benefited the zamíndár I sincerely doubt. have twice as many wives as before, to eat better food, to be better clothed and housed, to ride a nag where he went formerly on foot, are outward signs of improvement and civilisation; but when we remember that all this is accompanied by debt (there is hardly a Muhammadan landowner in the district who is not in debt), and that this debt is steadily increasing, how is it possible to be satisfied with things as they are? If a man draws a large prize in a lottery and follows it up by plunging into extravagances and adopting a style of living that is far beyond his income, we do not say that he is advancing in the path of civilisation and steadily improving his condition. He is called a reckless prodigal, and it is universally predicted that he will go to the dogs in the shortest of periods. Had rights of occupancy only been given to the cultivators, and all transfers, except such as the State sanctioned. absolutely prohibited, there certainly would not have been anything like the amount of indebtedness that we now find, and I have little doubt that the Government would have been able to have largely increased the land revenue. After 30 years, we are just beginning to take about as much as the Sikhs took on a very much smaller cultivated area. Why we cannot take more is exemplified in the mortgage statement. There are mortgages in the district to the amount of 111 lakhs, and of course an enormous quantity of unsecured debt besides." The interest on the unsecured debt all goes our of the agriculturist's pocket, out of the produce of his land. I suppose there are but few villages in which the annual interest on debt does not exceed the Government demand. So far the agricultural community is impoverished and less able to pay a fair rent to Government. As our Government has made it possible for the zamindár to raise money, so has the money-lender made it difficult for him to free himself when once in debt, by charging an extortionate rate of interest. Here, as elsewere, 24 per cent. per annum is the rate charged. With this rate and compound interest a debt doubles in three years. wonder the wretched, foolish Jat never manages to extricate himself. He is sucked dry, and then allowed to drop out of the meshes."

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBU-TION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE AND ARBORI-CULTURE.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irriga- Chapter IV, A. tion, and for Government waste land; while the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III and IIIA and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates, Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples, and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, and the employment of field labour, have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section D.

With the exception of a little bàràni, rainland, cultivation in How far the agriculture northern half of the Chiniot tahsil, agriculture is in the Jhang ture of the district confined to londer either naturally points and hy invalidation is dependent on rain. district confined to lands either naturally moistened by inundation The effectof heavy or percolation from the Chenáb, Jhelam and Rávi rivers, or artificially irrigated from wells by means of the Persian wheel. No other system of lifting well water is known in this district. It must not however be supposed, because there is, so to speak, no cultivation that depends solely upon rain, that it is a matter of indifference whether the country gets rain or not. Sailàb lands of good quality, if well wetted during July and August, require wonderfully little rain, but without rain the crops are never good. To crops on light and sandy sailàb lands, no rain means destruction. The crop looks very well up to the latter half of February, and then the dryness of the Jhang climate soon makes itself felt. If the crop does not dry up, the ears will be small and stunted, and contain only a few shrivelled grains. It is not so much heavy rain as rain in season that is needed.* The outturn of all crops on well and sailab lands is best in years of moderate rainfall. This is not the same as saying that the district does best in years of moderate rainfall. For the public welfare Jhang could not have too much rain. Heavy rain means heavy grass crops, and it is far more important in a

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and light raine.

district where almost every one high and low owns cattle, that there should be good grazing, than that the crop outturn should be heavy. In the Dera Ismáil Khán Thal the case is much the same.

^{*} For a remarkable instance of how little rain is required to ensure a good yield, if only it comes at the proper time, and how much more important the season of the fall is than its amount, see paragraph 91 of Mr. Steedman's Settle-

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From a grazing point of view the Thal cannot have too much rain, but the Thal well-owners will tell you that too much rain is very injurious to their wells, and diminishes the crop yield materially. To sum up, for a good crop and a heavy outturn an average rainfull judiciously arranged is best; but for the general wellbeing, the more rain the better, the months during which the kharif and rabi crops ripen and are harvested being excepted.

Cultivated and irrigated area of the district.

The cultivated area of the district, in acres, is arranged below, with the number of wells that were at work at the recent Settlement:—

Wells.	Cháhi.	Sailába.	Bá r á n i,
11,018	227,299	98,748	, 3,480
Percentage	69:	30	1.

The statement below shows the irrigated area ascertained at the same time:—

ABSTRACT SHOWING THE IRRIGATED AND UNIRRIGATED SOILS
IN EACH TAHSIL.

				Cultivated.								
				I	rrigated	l.						
Number.	Tahsíl.	Cháhi Khális.	Cháhi Sailáb.	Cháhi Jhalári.	Cháhi Naihri.	Jhalári.	Naihri,	Total,				
$\begin{vmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{vmatrix}$	Chiniot Jhang Shorkot	72,543 91,100 42,858		110 498 438	605	1,397 1,444	 395	73,753 100,238 56,379				
	Total	206,501	18,982	1,046	605	2,841	395	230,370				
1												
				Cu	LTIVAT	ED.						
		Uni	irrigate					a nd				
Number.	Tahsil.	Sailáb.	irrigated iu		Total cultivated area.	Abandoned and	Appar.	Total cultivated and fallow area.				
1 2	Chiniot	Sailáb,		d	0.361 Total cultivated area.	See Abandoned and	7,844 0,235 2,155					

Note.—This statement includes the area of revenue assignments.

In cháhi is included all areas artificially irrigated, whether by canal, jhalár, or well. Naihri, or inundation canal cultivation,

differs but little from sailáb; but the means of irrigation are not Chapter IV, A. natural, and therefore it is here classed with cháhi. The different methods of agriculture from wells and jhalárs, on sailába and naihrí, and on báráni lands, will now be discussed.

Table No. XIV gives details of irrigation. Further information will be found at pages 177 to 203 of Major Wace's Famine Report, compiled in 1878. At that time $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the cultivation was irrigated from canals, 68½ per cent. from wells, 30 per cent. was flooded, and the remaining 1 per cent. was wholly dependent upon The following figures show the number of wells then existing in the district, with certain statistics regarding them:—

Number	Dept water i		Cost in	rupees.	whe	eks per el or ket.	Cost	per v	rriga ted wheel icket.
of wells.	From	То				Cost in rupees	of gear.	Spring.	Autumn.
7,052 3,220 595	20	20 30 40	185 250 350	25 	$\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{4}{4\frac{1}{2}}$	102 160 200	38 40 45	15 16 15	7 7 6

Of these wells only 40 were unbricked; while all were worked by the Persian wheel. The wells in the upland circles of the Chiniot tahsil are deeper than in any other part of the district. The wells in the villages fringing the river bank are usually less than 20 feet deep; those in the villages beyond are, in the northern half of the district, from 15 to 25 feet; and those in the villages lying underneath the Bár, both in the Chaj and the Rachna Doábs, are usually 30 feet or As the Rávi is approached, the depth of the wells sensibly Speaking generally, the wells in the villages under the decreases. Bár may be said to diminish in depth from the boundary of the Shorkot tahsil southwards. On the west of the Jhelam the wells in villages lying between the Thal of the Sind Ságar Doáb and the riverain villages are slightly over 20 feet in depth, whether near the Thal or near the river.

In Jhang, wells are pakka where the cylinder is made of burnt bricks cemented by mud, and kachcha where the well is merely a hole in the ground, or where the hole is lined with a cylinder of wattles or stakes. A kachcha well without any lining or with a wattle lining is termed kharora. These are most common. A kachcha well lined with stakes arranged in a circle and banded together is not met with often, and is called kathiúl or gandiál. A jhalár is the name given to a Persian wheel when set to work on the edge of a nála, stream or pond. The best jhalárs are those where the pit from which the water is drawn is a short distance, a few yards, away from the edge of the stream or pond. The pit is rectangular, with an inward slope, and the lowest portion is sometimes lined with bricks. This reservoir in which the water pots revolve is connected with the stream or pond by a narrow channel open at the top. In Maghiana some of these channels are lined with brick. Usually the the jhalár pits and connecting channels are

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Wells.

constructed in the roughest manner. In the case of other jhalàrs the well pots dip into the stream or pond itself. Here there is no pit, but the sides of the bank have to be faced off and strengthened, over which the well pots and vertical wheel hang. Pakka wells are divided into double wheeled and single wheeled. There is no difference in the building, except that one is larger than the other. Mortar is hardly ever used to cement the brick work of a pakka well. It is supposed to altogether spoil the water for drinking purposes, and to injure it for irrigation. A full description of the various parts of which a Persian wheel is composed will be found in paragraph 98 of Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report.

Well sinking. Masonry-wells.

The sinking of a pakka well is a business not unassociated with awe to the zamindár. First of all the services of a man wise in the finding of water must be obtained, and the site of the well determined at his direction. Next a small hole is dug in the ground, a libation of oil is poured into it, and gir is distributed. Then the well hole is excavated to the water level. The well curb, chak, made of kikar wood, is then let down by four ropes to the floor of the hole, and g ur is again distributed. The well cylinder is built up on the curb to a height sufficient to take it down to the required depth. Around the top is constructed a platform with containing walls of kana and sar bands, wound round and round and kept in place by pegs. All the sand that is dredged out of the well is packed on to this platform, and its weight serves to sink the well. It is not thrown aside until the well has been sunk as far as it is to go. The upper three or four feet of the brick cylinder are also strengthened by being wound round with kàna bands. This may be dispensed with if water is near, and the well only a small one. A well is sunk down to the stratum that is called the sach. In this district the true sach is a stratum of coarse sand of a reddish colour. If this stratum is not found, everything that is bad happens to the well. The water is dirty and the supply deficient. Holes form under the chak. first the well only sinks, but finally the brick-work cracks or falls in. The sach of wells on the Chenáb is good, though there are exceptions. On the Jhelam it is inferior. The definition of sach is not easy, but it apparently means a good water-bearing stratum of pure sand through which water springs or percolates regularly and rapidly into the well. When the diver asserts that the sach has been reached, the water-supply is at once tested by borrowing seven or eight pairs of bullocks and working the well for two days as hard as it can go. If the water level in the well is thereby only a few inches lowered, the water-supply is good, The sach having been reached, the well is worked for about a week to further test the water-bearing capacity of the stratum, and if everything is satisfactory, the platform is taken off and the sand thrown down round the well. Where the sach is good, the well scarcely ever requires cleaning. All that has to be done is to pick out the well pots and fragments that tumble in from time to time; whereas with a bad or no sach the well requires constant attention. and mud accumulate inside, and have to be removed, and the well has to be stopped because there is no water. When the brick work cracks or falls in, the well is rendered serviceable by sinking inside a small wood cylinder called chak, kothí, bachchi, chaubachcha. Sometimes the crack is patched up, but this is not usual. A kachcha well is only sunk down low enough to ensure a good supply of water. They are not renewed or repaired, but have to be cleaned out. The water in a kachcha well is never clear. A well with a wattle cylinder lasts about six years, one with a stake cylinder about fifteen years.

On this point Mr. Steedman writes:-

"The quesition—'What does it cost to sink a well?' must be answered just as the question-'What is the area a well can irrigate? by-'It depends.' I have heard of wells close by the river where water is within a few feet of the surface, having to be sunk 20 and 30 feet before the desired sach was found. Here you have wells where the depth of water in the wells is twice as great or more than the distance from water level to the surface of the ground. Three years ago I sunk a well in my garden in the zamíndár's fashion, pouring out oil, distributing gúr in the orthodox mode, and it cost me Rs. 250. The well is 20 feet to water and $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet under water. The sach is excellent, and there were no hitches in the work. To a zamindar the cost of constructing a well is not much. The well hole is dug out, the bricks made, burnt, and carried by the Kamins. Fuel is supplied by the village waste and his cotton fields. The bricklayers' and divers' work is the only heavy charge. All the labour of spreading the sand, pulling up the dredge, &c., is performed by the Kamins, and they get nothing but a meal a day. I do not think I am far wrong in putting the cost of a well to a zamíndár at half what it would cost a non-proprietor. I estimate that a well 20 feet deep will cost Rs. 200, one 30 feet deep Rs. 300, and one **40** feet deep Rs. 450."

The people have most various modes of dividing the water of a well. So many pahrs of three hours each are allotted to each share, and after a fixed period the times of the pahrs are changed. If the well is held on three-thirds, and four consecutive pahrs are allotted to each third, then the yoking times change of themselves, e.g., A, B and C hold a well, and each works the well for four pahrs. A's turn at the well, if from midnight to midday on Monday, will be from midday to midnight on Tuesday. Similarly, if a two pahrs turn is allowed to each proprietor of one-sixth, the time of each turn changes in regular order. If, however, the turn is of two pahrs for each quarter in the well, then the change has to be made artificially. The change when made gives the two night turns to the proprietors who before had the day turns, and they again arrange between themselves to take in alternate weeks the first or second turn. Turns are called vàris. They are always calculated on pahrs of three hours each. A vari is never less than two pahrs or six hours, and never more than eight pahrs or 24 hours. A pair of bullocks works six hours at a stretch. There is no difference between the system of vàris in the Hithár and Utár, on shallow and deep wells. Varis always correspond to the proprietary shares in the well, or to the proprietary shares represented by the amount of land held by the tenants. A one-third sharer in a well will not get an extra long vàri, because he -possesses an extra pair of bullocks.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture & Arboriculture.

Kachcha wells.

Cost of a well,

The system of distributing well water. Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture &
Arboriculture.

What area does a
well irrigate.

The areas irrigated by wells in different parts of the district differ considerably. The area usually irrigated by a full yoked well assisted by sailab is much the same all over the district—about 30 acres. The area irrigated by a well and jhalár varies too much to allow of any good estimate being made. The time that the jhalár can be worked is uncertain. In forming an idea of what area is on the average irrigated by unassisted wells, the first thing to be done is to banish any preconceived opinions that this area varies inversely to the depth to water in the well. As a matter of fact, the areas irrigated by the deep wells of the Chiniot tahsil in the uplands between the Kirána Bár and the river have the largest areas under annual cultivation of any in the district. In the Shorkot Utár lands lying under the Bár, the depth to water is two-thirds of what it is in Chiniot, yet the areas irrigated are hardly half those of the Chiniot wells. Much more depends upon the quality of the soil, the number and power of the bullocks, the rainfall, the industry of the cultivator, and the nature of the crops grown, than on the distance that the water has to be lifted. The following is Mr. Steedman's estimate in acres of the areas irrigated by unassisted wells in the various parts of the district:—

Chiniot	uplands.		Jhang uplands		
East of Chenab.	West of Chenab.	Between Chenab and Chaj Bar.	Along Jhelam.	Between Chenab and Sandal Bar.	Shorkot uplands.
30	26	24	20	17	15

The following statement gives the average areas attached to each well, including fallow, in acres, as ascertained at the recent Settlement:—

i			Cir	cle.	
	Tahsil.	Centre.	Bár.	Utar.	Kachhi.
	Chiniot	26.5 20.7 16.5 15.0	26 16:8 15:4	30 24.5	15·5 15·8

Kachcha wells are only found in the Hithár near the rivers. Their irrigating power is about one-fifth less than that of masonry wells in similar situations. They are liable to dry up. The area watered by a jhalár in a given time must be half as much again as that by a well. The water pots (they might be called lotás) are quite twice the size of those used on wells, and the wheel on which they are strung revolves quite as fast as the wheel on any ordinary well. Besides the greater quantity of water delivered, the zamíndárs say that the change of water itself is a benefit to the soil. The only disadvantage appears to be a larger wastage than that which takes place in the case of wells. Where a well is assisted by a jhalár, the lands attached will be almost always farmed well. A slovenly cultivator does not trouble himself to set up a jhalár.

On the upland unassisted wells of this district there is no system of agriculture that can properly be called rotation of crops.

Rotation of crops, System of agriculture on well lands,

The two main points to be kept in mind are—1st, that on a well Chapter IV, A. the area under spring crops is usually from 70 to 75 per cent. of the area annually cultivated, and that three-fourths of the spring crops are wheat and barley; 2nd, that owing to the intense heat and dryness of the climate during the hot months and scanty rainfall, the land put under autumn crops is chosen near to the well, in order that the loss by evaporation may be the least possible. The difference between the irrigating power of a well in the hot and cold weather is enormous. The proportion between the area under kharif and rabi crops indicates this. Crops that require to be liberally manured are always cultivated close round the well. The area under crop varies greatly from year to year. All other things being equal (i. e., the number of tenants and well bullocks), the disturbing element is the rainfall. For the autumn harvest it is the jowar crop area that contracts or expands. The cotton sowings are made long before the summer rains, and are not affected thereby. Even if good rain fell just before the time for sowing cotton, it is doubtful whether a larger area would be sown. The cultivator knows what hard work it often is in May, June, and the first half of July to keep the cotton alive, and will rarely be tempted to sow a larger than the average area. With jowar the case is different. If there is good rain in July, jouar will be sown without irrigating the land, with the knowledge that it will germinate, and the hope that rains to come will, with the aid of a couple or so of waterings about September, bring the crop to maturity. Such jowar is additional to the area usually cropped, and has to take its chance. If the later rains fail, then this jowdr will be abandoned. The well can only irrigate the ordinary cotton, joudr and china area. Before the wheat sowings the turnips have to be sown. If there is rain in September and October, the area under wheat will be above the average. The hypothetical well has of course a total attached area larger than the area annually under crop by at least two-thirds, so that there is no practical limit to the cultivation besides the known irrigating power of the well and the scantiness and uncertainty of the rainfall. If, therefore, the rainfall in September and October is exceptional, there is nothing to prevent the cultivator from putting under wheat twice as much land as usual. As a matter of fact, in the most favourable years the area sown with wheat will never exceed the average area by more than one-third. Seed is expensive, and to see wheat drying up for want of irrigation is heart-breaking. As the wheat and jowdr areas increase in a year of favourable rainfall, so do they contract if the rainfall is scant. The cotton, china, turnips, and tobacco areas will vary but little in favourable and unfavourable years. Below is an estimate in acres of the areas annually occupied by various crops on a well in Chimiot and another in Jhang:—

		Khari	F.					RABI			
	Cotton Jowar China Total. Wheat and Barley Turnips Tobacco Methra Total.				Total.	Grand total.					
Chiniot	3	4	2	9	18	21/2	-	}		21	30
Jhang .	2	17	퓽	45	9}	11/2	İ	į,	1	113	16

Agriculture & Arboriculture.

Rotation of crops. System of agriculture on well lands.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture & Arboriculture.

Rotation of crops. System of agriculture on well lands.

Manure,

The area immediately round the well will be under crop every year, and a small portion will be double-cropped. The area under china, turnips, and tobacco will be or ought to be always manured, and a large portion of the cotton area also. The manured area shown in all the statistics is much understated. The unmanured portion of the well estate is renovated by fallows. The more culturable land there is round the well, the longer the fallow and the less frequent the crop. It it quite impossible to state that the farming is by courses, for no regular system of rotation is followed. Generally speaking, it is perhaps not unsafe to say that in the year the land nearest the well is manured and double-cropped, the land beyond sometimes manured and cropped once, and the lands outside bear wheat two years running, and get a fallow every third year, and sometimes lie fallow two years. Ordinary instances of double-cropping are as follows:—Jowár followed by wheat or barley; tobacco by jowár or turnips; wheat cut green by jowár for china; cotton by methra; turnips by cotton; rice by wheat.

The Jhang district is peculiarly rich in cattle, and the home production of manure on each well is considerable. The right to take village refuse is a fruitful cause of litigation. To many wells, flocks of sheep and goats are attached. These are rarely penned and fed on the land intended for cultivation, though instances are not absolutely wanting. They graze on the waste during the day, and are driven into a sheep-fold at night. Here their droppings accumulate. The manure is dug up twice a year and applied to the land. Old manure is the best, and ought to be powdery. New manure is said to be too strong and to burn. In the neighbourhood of the towns, their refuse and filth find a ready market. Sheep droppings are also brought in from the Bár on camels. The only expense is the cost of carriage. In the case of wells cultivated with any care, one-fifth of the area under crop in the year will have been manured. Land intended for tobacco, vegetables, and sugar-cane is most heavily manured. China and turnips get a fair, and cotton and wheat a small allowance. The average weight of manure given to the acre per annum is an unknown quantity, lying between 800 maunds and 50 maunds. In the Kachhi, soil dug out of old mounds is used as a top dressing. The earth that has collected in heaps round bushes is similarly used. Earth is not used any-The Kachhi is poorer in cattle than any other portion of the district. The following figures show the manured area in acres:-

STATEMENT OF MANURED AND UNMANURED AREA.

ber.			Manured		Ţ	Jnmanured	ı.	Total
Number	Tahsil.	Ek-faslı.	Do-fusli.	Total.	Ek-fasli.	Do-fasli.	Total	area under crop.
1 2 3	Chiniot Jhang Shorkot	16,655 21,345 3,876	2,138 4,568 736	18.793 25,913 4,612	71,574 106,343 88,395	1,544 2,597 1,189	73,118 108,940 89,584	91,91 1 134,853 94,196
	Total of District .	41,876	7,442	49,318	26,631	5,330	271,642	320,96 0

Note.—By an error subsequently discovered, the fallow area has been included in the return of the Jhang tahsil. The areas of the two other tahsils are the areas under crop. The Jhang area includes 7,358 acres of hator shown as Ek-fosls.

The quality of the sailáb or alluvial lands, naturally moistened by the three rivers, is of considerable variation. Sailáb lands are cultivated in much the same way all over the district. Wheat is the favourite crop. In Chiniot hardly anything beyond a little Indian corn is grown for the autumn harvest. In Jhang some little jowár, másh-mung and til is grown. In Shorkot the area under kharif crops is larger. There is absolutely no rotation of crops whatever on sailáb lands. Year after year the land bears its single crop—the richer soils wheat, the lighter a kharif crop. No fallows are willingly allowed, but sailab lands often lie fallow through failure of the floods. Sometimes when the wheat-producing virtue of the soil has become somewhat exhausted, or the land has become full of weeds, a couple of gram crops are substituted. It is said that change cleans the land. Másh-mung and til are never grown on well lands, nor are gram, massar, and peas. The mode of cultivating sailáb lands is described in the succeeding paragraphs which treat of each crop. Sailáb land is rarely manured, only turnips receiving a small allowance. It is supposed to burn the plants. The best sailáb lands are either those which have lately received a deposit of silt, or those in islands, bela, in the river, that are not inundated but obtain abundant moisture from percolation. Flooding, unless there is a deposit of silt, is apt, if of long duration or too often, to injure and weaken the land. It also hinders ploughing. With percolation ploughing is never stopped for a day, and the talla grass is destroyed before it gets rank. With percolation the kharif crop is assured, but with floods or a deposit of silt it is dangerous to sow kharíf crops, and the land is usually kept for the spring harvest. Too much water is very nearly as much hated by the agriculturists as too little. It is not pleasant to find your house tumbling about your head, your land under water for a week, your grain stores damped and ruined, and hardly a dry place for the soles of your feet. Then this is generally followed by fever among human beings, and murrain among cattle. There is some small amount of double-cropping on sailab lands—sometimes, especially after a year in which the floods have failed extending to as much as a quarter of their area. Múshmung especially, and sometimes jowár, are often followed by wheat or massar. Raván and melons are at times sown after all the spring crops.

The only canals in this district are inundation ditches. Where Canal cultivation. land not attached to a well is irrigated, the cultivation and crops are the same as on sailáb lands.

Báráni or rain cultivation is found all over the district, but Báráni cultivation. except in Chiniot, the area is so small as to require no special notice. Rain cultivation in this district might with greater propriety be called surface drainage cultivation. There is little or no rain cultivation that is not situate in a depression. Bájra, wheat, gram, moth, and til are the principal crops. No rotation of crops is practised. The slight rainfall renders at intervals a fallow course compulsory. Ploughings are liberally given, but no manure.

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts, and ploughs in each tabsil of the district as returned in 1878-79. A full list of

Chapter IV, A. Agriculture & Arboriculture.

System of cultivating sailab lands.

Agricultural implements and appliances.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture &
Arboriculture.

Principal staples.

agricultural implements, with their names and uses, is given at page 83 of Mr. Steedman's Settlement Report. The implements present no peculiarities, and it is needless to reproduce the description.

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. The remaining acres under crop in 1880-81 and 1881-82 were distributed in the manner shown below:—

Crop.		1880-81.	1881-82.	Crop.	1880-81.	1881- 82.
Kangar China Mattar Mash (Urd) Mung Massar Arhar		144 5,778 7,737 7,282 2,213 2,389	120 3,966 7,299 6,617 565 2,545 150	Coriander Chillies Mustard Til Tara Mira Kasumbah Other crops	 3 1 318 3,061 299 1 10,265	2 3 329 3,047 283 1 12,232

On the opposite page will be found a statement, taken from Mr. Steedman's Report, giving the names of the various crops, together with the area of each as ascertained at the recent Settlement, and the seasons for sowing and reaping. The crop whose areas are especially small are classed together under the head of Miscellaneous. All soils not sailába or báráni are shown as cháhi, or irrigated from wells. The total area under crop is 326,374 acres, of which 72.7 per cent. is under spring harvest and 27.3 under autumn harvest crops. Where the cháhi and sailába areas were not ascertained, the total area is shown half way between the two columns.

Wheat cultivation.

Wheat.—The modes of cultivating wheat in the rainlands of Chiniot, the sailab lands of the rivers, and on well lands, are of course very different. The chief difference is in the number of ploughings. Most are given in the case of báráni lands. It is of the utmost importance to the cultivator to have enabled as much rain as possible to sink into the soil, and to prevent, as far as he can, all loss of moisture by evaporation or surface drainage. Wheat takes six months to ripen, and is entirely dependent here upon the very uncertain rainfall. So as many ploughings are given to báráni land as possible, and the roller is frequently used. The seed is always sown with a drill. After seed time there is nothing to be done but sit down and wait until the harvest. In sailáb lands the soil should be ploughed up as often as is possible. Talla grass springs up very fast, and the cleaner the soil the better the crop. A good farmer will often begin to plough sailáb lands in June if percolation has rendered the soil sufficiently moist, and he will go on ploughing as often as he can until the 1st Katik. High and continued floods are injurious to the wheat crop, because they stop the early ploughings. If the talla is thick, very strong bullocks are required to work a plough with any effect. Sailab lands are almost always sown by drill. In Chiniot a great deal of wheat is sown broadcast. With well lands the procedure is different. If the rainfall is only ordinary, there will be hardly any land ploughed up for wheat before seed time arrives. The land intended for the kharif is ploughed first. The bullocks are probably in a very bad condition when the first rain comes, and it is generally

	CROP NAMES.			AREA I	AREA IN ACRES.		IN WHAT MONTES.	iontes.
English.	Vernacular.	Botanical.	Cháhi.	Sailáb. Báráni.	Báráni.	Total.	Sown.	Cut.
Wheat Sarley Gram Garm Gram Turnips Sag, Gonglu Peas Mattar Leutil Massar Mustard Ussu Trofoil Mechra Tobacco Tammaku Melons Yali, Vali, Vali, Sag, Colsa Total area under Spring crops	Kanak Jau Chholo Chholo Sag, Gonglu Mattar Massar Ussu Mehan Tammaku Yali, Vali, Kharbuzo Sarshan	Priticum vulgare Hordeam hexastichum Gleer ar utmam Brassaca Ruga Lathyrus satisvus Brassaca Braca { Triponalla	122,086 4,842 7.26,5 38 38 384 1,11	26,502 26,502 26,502 26,602 384 2,404 384 2,404 1,158	854 423 803 803 803 803 803	176,550 6,059 18,769 28,563 7,779 2,404 2,904 1,167 1,167 205 207,134	15th Octr. to 31st Decr 1st Octr. to 31st Decr 10th Septr. to 25th Octr 25th Augt. to 25th Octr 1st Octr. to 1st Novr 1st Novr. to 1sth Docr 1st Novr. to 1sth Decr 5squombor Octr. , Oldhi 15th [Solido Octr. , Oldhi March] 1sth March and April 1sth November	left April to 15th May. 1st April to 15th April. Ditto ditto. 1st April to 15th April. 1st April to 15th April. 1st April to 15th April. 15th March to 1st April. 1st March to 1st April. 1st March to 1st April. 1st March to 1st April. 1sth June to 15th July. 20th May to 30th June. 1sth:30th November.
Cotton Great Millet Spiked Millet	Kapan, yanwar Dowar Bajra Mush, Mah Mung Mung Mung Mung Mung Mung Mung	tionsypnen herbaceum Soopthum valgare Pentellevia spiedta Phaseolus redlatus Phaseolus vadiatus Phaseolus comtiguis Prasolus contifeius	27,417 29,335 1,140	8,756 8,756 8,129 341 177	777 706 90 80 128	28,256 38,268 1,845 9,019 3,084 3,084	lst April to 1st May löth July to 81st Augt. 1st July to 15th Augt. August August 15th July to 15th Augt. 15th July to 15th Augt. 15th July to 15th Augt.	18th Sept. to 18th Jany. Sixth Octr. to 18th Decr. 18th Octr. to 18th Novr. 18th Novr. to 18th Decr. November.
ne Ville t		Lea surgs Parieum miliaceum Sacchieun officinarum Orza sisteu Consecum flaticum Oplismeuns framentaceus Eleasne corocan	1,341 4,241 222 98 487 228		40 18		John was on Stocker. (2.55th March to 15th April (1.6th August to 15th Sopt. March 15th July to 15th Augt. 15th May to 1st Juno July	Juno. November. Jet Novr. to 15th Feby. Jet Novr. to 15th Novr. Jet Novr. to 15th Novr. Jet Novr. to 15th Novr. Jeth Augt. to 15th Novr. Jeth Oct., to 15th Novr.
Vogetables Tarkari Poppy Post Miscellaneous Total area under Autumn ere	Rufiu Post Aufumn crons	Fennselum cenchroules Papaver sommiferum	19 341	: ::	: ::	359 19 12 12	4 July 359 19 15th October—15th Nov	October. 1stApril—15th April.
, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	·· sdop mman		:	:	-	05,240		

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture & Arboriculture.

Principal staples.

Chapter IV, A.

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Wheat cultivation.

the best policy to give them a holiday before anything is done. If, when the bullocks have recovered from the effects of work during May and June, there is still more rain, then the wellowner will plough up as much land for wheat, rolling it afterwards, as he intends to sow. If there is more rain in August and September, he will give it as many more ploughings as he can. If the land has been ploughed up four or five times before seed time and is still moist, the seed will be sown broadcast, ploughed in, rolled, and ploughed again. It will be allowed to germinate, and as soon as the blades have sprung up, it will receive its first watering. If, however, the rainfall has been deficient and the well oxen have been unable to do anything more than attend to the wants of the cotton, jouár, china and turnips, until the wheat seed time comes, there will not be a single marla ploughed up beforehand. Now the sowing time is limited, and when the land has to be irrigated before being ploughed and sown, it is the zamindar's object to lose as little time as possible. Accordingly he first irrigates the land. The seed is next scattered broadcast over the unploughed surface, and is then ploughed in and rolled. The usual number of ploughings is three or four, never less than two. Wheat is never sown by drill on well-lands, those in the Hithar that receive sailab being excepted. In the Hithár, if the soil is moist enough, the well-lands are prepared for the wheat with almost as many ploughings as the pure sailab lands. The seed is sown with a drill, and the irrigation beds and well channels are made afterwards. The wheat sowings begin about 15th October, and go on to the end of December, but by the 15th December the really good time has gone by. The amount of seed varies according to the time of sowing and the kind of soil. The earlier the sowing the less seed. seed used per acre is for báráni lands 3 topás per kanál, 90 lbs. per acre; for sailáb lands $2\frac{1}{2}$ topás, 75 lbs. early, 3 to 4 topás, 90 to 120 lbs. late; for cháhi $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 topás, 75 to 90 lbs. early, 4 topás 120 lbs. late. On well lands in the Hithar on an average the wheat is watered three or four times after being sown, on Utár lands eight or nine times. In some exceptional years it ripens almost without a single watering. In others the irrigating power of the well cannot keep the whole crop sown alive. In its infancy the wheat plant suffers from múla—an insect that attacks the root frost, and cloudy weather. Frost does not hurt early sown wheat, provided it is followed by rain in the first 15 days of January. It rather strengthens the plant, but early frosts not followed by rain play havoc with late sown young wheat. The lighter and more sandy the soil the worse for the wheat; later on, various blights, rust and smut attack the plant. Rust is the most dangerous disease. As a rule, rust does not render the ears absolutely empty, but it shrivels up the grain to half its natural size and weight. The wheat harvest varies according to the nature of the weather. In ordinary years it begins soon after the 15th April. four kinds of wheat grown chiefly in this district—Chitti Rodi, Koni, Ratti Chighári, and Dandi Chighári. The first is a white beardless wheat with a long thinnish ear, chiefly grown on the upland wells in the Shorkot tahsil. The grain makes a good sample, plump and

white. Koni is another white wheat with a beardless ear, which has a square unpointed end. The grain is small but whiter than the last. It does not yield well. The third is a red wheat, bearded, and is commonest of all. It is the common wheat on sailab lands. Kàl Chighàri, another red wheat, has a very handsome ear, thick and garnished, with a beard that is black at the root. Lundi, jowari, and pamman are other kinds, but they are not often met with. Good wheat is grown on the upland wells in a year of favourable rainfall. The wheat of Salára, near Chiniot, has a great reputation. The average outturn of an acre of wheat on well lands is probably about 16 maunds, and on sailab 8 maunds. In the month of May young wheat is cut with a sickle, and sheep and goats and cattle are turned on to the wheat, and it is grazed down once. The advantage of this is to strengthen the stalk and to prevent the wheat from being blown or falling down. High wheat crops on well lands after irrigation are liable to go down before a very little wind. The yield is lessened.

Barley is appreciated for the following qualities. It ripens earlier than wheat, gives a heavier yield, requires fewer waterings, and will do well in a lighter soil. Very little comparatively is grown Goji, wheat and barley mixed, is a crop almost in this district. unknown. The two crops are grown together for early khawid, green wheat. Also any zamindár who keeps horses will have a few acres under barley to provide them with grain. With these exceptions, not above half an acre is, as a rule, grown on a well. As soon as the barley ears begin to turn colour, the tenant commences to pluck them. They are scorched and eaten. On sailàb land barley is only grown where the soil is too light for a good wheat crop. It is in such case often mixed thinly with gram. Such barley is sometimes allowed to ripen, but more often is cut green as fodder. Barley as a fodder crop is often sown with turnips on well lands, and in the Hithár also, but less frequently. The best sowing time for barley is the end of Assú and the beginning of Kátik (October). It can be sown also even later than wheat. Occasionally it follows as a double crop after jowar and mah-mung on sailàb lands. On well lands it is sown broadcast in sailàb with a The amount of seed sown is much the same as in the case of wheat, from 3 to 4 topàs a kanàl, 90 to 120 lbs. an acre. On well lands, land to be sown with barley will be treated with the same amount of ploughings as wheat. On sailàb land less trouble is taken. In fact barley is now, owing to its fall in value, as compared with wheat, considered an inferior crop, and treated accordingly. It is liable to the same diseases as wheat in a less degree. There is only one kind of barley usually sown, called nahri. A kind of red barley called kona kàlà is also grown. The beard is almost black in colour.

Gram is, after wheat, the favourite rab crop, though, as compared with wheat, the area annually under crop is as 1 to 14. Gram, it may almost be said, is never irrigated by well water. Almost all the area under gram shown in the crop statement is sail in the Utár also some little gram is grown in hollows

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where surface drainage collects. Gram grows best in a stiffish Utár soil that in years of high floods gets flood water from the river. In the Hithar gram is sown in every description of soil, from stiff clay to sandy loam. A clayey soil suits it best, but with decent cold weather rain it does well in light loam. More gram is grown in the Shorkot tahsíl than elsewhere. There the floods extend far inland, and the lands scantily inundated by the outer edge of the floods are put under gram. Two ploughings are considered sufficient, and more are very seldom given. Seed is sown with a drill, and the amount averages 11 topa per kanál, about 45 lbs. an acre. Very often gram only gets one ploughing. and more disgraceful farming can hardly be conceived. The seed is sown broadcast on the ground, and the plough is run through once only, and then the zamindár complains that there is no yield. Gram is almost always grazed down once by cattle. In Kátik the calves are turned on to the gram fields when the plants are only two or three inches high. Later on in Poh, cows and horses are allowed to graze. Zamindars say that if the plant gets rain afterwards, it is not injured but is strengthened, and tillers better. The cattle too are greatly benefited by a little green food at this season of the year. The custom of grazing cattle on the green crops so prevalent in this district is probably due to the very great extent to which the agricultural population depend upon cattle for their sustenance. Milk, buttermilk, and curds are articles of the commonest consumption. Gram is grown with barley on sailáb lands. A very common mixture in the Shorkot sailáb lands is máh-mung, turnips, and gram. Sometimes the gram is absent, and sometimes the turnips. The advantage of such a crop is obvious. It provides fodder for the bullocks. Máh-mung and gram do very well together, and one or other usually furnishes a good crop. If the mung is good, the gram will be very thin, and the plants weak and lanky. On the other hand, excellent gram crops often follow thin mung crop. Gram is neither watered, weeded, nor manured. It is a very healthy strong plant if it is honestly cultivated. Once it has fairly shot up, it requires very little rain. Late rain, thunderstorms, and high winds are injurious. A good downfall at Christmas, and one shower about the end of January only are needed to ensure a first class gram crop. If there is rain in Chet (March-April), the pod and grains are generally attacked by caterpillars. The outturn of gram varies greatly. The average may be struck at about 10 maunds.

Turnips.

Turnips are on well lands a most important crop in this district. If the crop is a failure, the wheat suffers. The well oxen are very heavily worked during the wheat sowings and the first waterings, and require a large amount of strengthening food. This is furnished by the jouár and turnip crops. There is nothing else. If the turnips fail, or are late as they often are owing to the failure of the first sowings, the working power of the bullocks is materially weakened, and the area under wheat does not get properly watered. Turnips, raw and cooked, are also eaten largely by the tenants during the cold weather. To them no less than to the bullocks, a bad turnip crop is a serious misfortune. It is

sometimes destroyed by kummi, a kind of múla, that attacks the Chapter IV, A. root. The best land on the well, well ploughed and liberally manured, is allotted to this crop. The land will generally have been ploughed up after rain once before the seed time arrives. The land is then irrigated and ploughed from three to six times with one or two rollings in between, if there are any clods to be broken up. The seed is sown broadcast, mixed with sand or earth or manure. Then the soil is once more rolled, and the irrigation beds and channels are made. If the soil has now become somewhat dry, a watering is given at once; but usually the first watering is given a few days after the plants have come up. When turnips are sown on well lands in soil that has been ploughed up once or twice previously, a couple of ploughings are given, and then the well beds and irrigation channels are banked The seed is sown broadcast, and mixed into the soil with the leafless branch of a thorny tree that is brushed over the ground, and a first watering is given at once. In sailab lands the process is different. The land is ploughed twice or three times and rolled. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in with very shallow furrows. If turnip seed gets too deep into the ground, it does not come up. Turnip sowings, commence in Badrú and go on to Kátik. There are generally two sowings, early and late. Often a third sowing is made. The amount of seed used is one paropi a kanál, $3\frac{1}{2}$ seers an acre. The crop ripens in three months. Zamíndárs say turnips are not ready till the first frosts. It is watered five or six times. No weedings or hoeings are given. A turnip crop should not be too thick, or it runs to leaf, and A first class crop is that which yields a the bulbs suffer. good fodder crop of leaves first, and a heavy root crop afterwards. The turnip leaves are cut once, sometimes twice on the very best lands, and then the bulbs are pulled up. On sailáb lands the leaves are not cut, but the whole plant is pulled up. The bulbs grow very large in sailáb lands. They are occasionally eaten on the ground, but this is of course very different from what is meant by the process at home. The great difficulty about the turnip crop is to sow the seed early and yet to get it to germinate well. It suffers from a kind of grasshopper—tidda. The crop also suffers from tela (blight), but never severely.

Peas, mattar, are grown on sailáb lands only, and principally in Shorkot. New alluvial land, and the beds of nálás, are the spots generally chosen. It is valued as a fodder crop only. The grain is very seldom threshed for more than the seed. The pods are picked green and eaten as a vegetable. A couple of ploughings are all that mattar lands usually obtain, and the seed is even sown broadcast on sailáb land too moist to plough at all, and often yields good crops. Ordinarily the seed is sown with a drill, at the end of Assú or the beginning of Kátik. The harvest is in Chetar. The plant is pulled, not reaped. The plant suffers from caterpillars that attack the pod.

The only other rabi crops that deserve notice are massar and a fodder crop methra. Massar is a sailába crop, and is never sown on other soils. Either new alluvial soils or light land that is not

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good enough for wheat is selected. Massar is often the first crop sown on new sailab lands, or follows mattar. The land is ploughed once or twice, and the seed is sown broadcast. One ploughing takes place after the seed is sown. Maghar and Poh are the months for sowing. From 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ paropis per kanál, or from 30 to 45 lbs. of seed per acre, is the amount used. The crop ripens in the end of Chet and the beginning of Baisákh. It is reaped, not pulled. The yield is light. It is subject to much the same injuries as gram. The pods are attacked by caterpillars. Rain, wind and thunder are hurtful when the plant is in flower. Methrá is a fodder crop. It is grown on wells and sailáb lands. On wells it is found chiefly in the Kachhi circles of Jhang and Shorkot, and on sailab in the south of the Shorkot tahsil. well lands it is sown after cotton and sometimes after jowár, rarely on uncropped ground. The seed is sown broadcast in the month of Maghar, is trampled into the ground and watered. The seed seldom fails to germinate. Five or six subsequent waterings are given, and the crop is ready to cut in Chet. A top dressing is often given to this crop. About 30 lbs. of seed is used per acre. On sailáb land methra is sown in Assú and the beginning of Kátik. Good new alluvium or a rich old clayey loam are the soils usually selected. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed lightly in. One or two ploughings will have been given beforehand. The sailáb crop ripens about the same time as that on wells. Methra is a hardy plant, and suffers but little from disease.

Cotton.

Cotton is the most valuable of the kharif crops in this district. It grows best on the Utar wells in a strong loam. Cotton on sailáb lands does not do well. One reason is that the mode of cultivation is more slovenly. Even on good wells in sailab lands the crop is always lighter than in the uplands. The cotton of Shorkot grown on the Utar soil, irrigated during the hot weather months from jhalars or the inundation canal, is very good. Land intended for cotton ought to be ploughed up once beforehand after the cold weather rain. It is then manured. All cotton land ought to be manured, but a good deal never is. The manure is spread, and the first watering is given. If the zamíndár is lazy, he sows the cotton seed smeared in cowdung broadcast. The land is then ploughed twice and rolled. If the zamindar is industrious, he will plough the land twice or perhaps three times before sowing the seed broadcast. The sohaga is then put over the land twice to cover in the seed. The well beds and water channels are then made. In Chiniot cotton is sown much earlier than in the two southern tahsils. Sowings are made from the end of Chet to the middle of Jeth (April and May). About 32 lbs. of seed are used per acre. Early-sown cotton is ready to pick in Badrú. Badrú pickings belong to the tenant. The proprietor does not share in the pickings before the 1st Assú, and he takes nothing after the Lohi festival, the 1st Magh. There is not much left after the 15th January, but what there is the tenant takes. Very little mudhi cotton is grown in this district. There is not enough rain. Cotton is hardly ever grown alone. Melons, jowár, mandúa, kangni, sawák, are almost invariably found in the cotton fields.

Melons are sown with the cotton. The other crops are sown later on, and are used principally for fodder. Jowár so sown is hardly ever allowed to ripen. More or less of the other three crops ripen, and the reason is that they are sown where the soil is hard and saline and not well suited for cotton. Hence the cotton is light, and the deficiency is made up by the associated crop. In this district the cotton on wells is not usually ploughed after the bushes have reached some height. The fields are hoed and weeded, and the jowar or other seed is then scattered broadcast, in between the cotton bushes. A watering is at once given, and the seed usually germinates. Less mandúa, kangni, and sawák are grown in Chiniot than in the other tahsils. During the hot months cotton is watered every sixth day. In the early stages cotton is liable to be injured by drought and hot winds. Too much rain is also injurious to cotton. The tela blight also attacks cotton. Early frosts do more damage than anything else. Two kinds of cotton are grown in the district, but the red-leaved plant is not often seen. The ordinary country plant is the most common.

Jowár and cotton are the two kharíf staples. Jowár is grown largely on wells and sailáb lands. On the báráni lands of the Chiniot tahsíl its place is taken by bájra. It is not grown to any large extent on the northern riverain villages of the tahsil, where makai takes its place. A recent accretion of good soil, land well manured, and soil that is clayey and has lain fallow for some years, are the three best soils for jowár. On the river lands the best soil for jowár is a light sandy loam of recent formation, well moistened by percolation. There is not very much preparation in the way of ploughing. Twice is considered ample. The seed is then sown broadcast and ploughed in. The ground is not rolled unless it is cloddy. If the soil is not very moist, the seed is sown with a drill, in order to get it as deep down into the soil as possible. Sowings commence at the beginning of Sáwan, and go on to the beginning of Badrú. The earlier the jowár is sown the better. It ripens before the frost, and the stalks are sweetest. Jovár is only sown late for fear of floods. On wells, if there has been rain and the soil is sufficiently moist, the land is prepared and sown just as Hithár land. If there has been no rain, the land is first irrigated, then ploughed twice and rolled. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in. Jouár seed is always steeped in water the night before it is sown. Jouar is watered about every eight days, but it is hardly safe to lay down any rule other than that it is watered whenever it begins to dry up. Jowár, when needing water, is a sure index to the quality of the soil. Where the soil is poor, the jowár leaves shrivel up very soon; while the rest of the crop, if the soil is good, may show scarcely any signs of distress. The amount of seed sown is about 1 paropi a kanál, or $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. an acre. There are numerous kinds of jowár. That grown near Khíwa and Khánúwána has the highest reputation. The varieties usually denote little more than grades of flavour in the grain when parched or scorched. Of one kind of $jow \acute{a}r$ the ear is compact and the grains close together, of another the ear

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is made up of a number of small branched stems, each carrying grain. The first is called gumma, the second tilyar. Jowár is often manured. The Kachhi jowár ripens earliest in the early part of Kátik, that grown in the Vichanh next, and that on the Chenáb last, in the middle of Maghar. Jowár is rather a delicate plant. Besides the maladies to which it is subject before it comes to ear, early frost and late rain greatly diminish the yield and render the stalks tasteless and dry. It is also liable to toka and tela.

Bájra.

 $B\'{a}jra$ may be said to be grown in the northern corner of Chiniot nearest to Sh\'{a}hpur only. It is hardly ever cultivated on well lands. After rain a couple or three ploughings are given. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in. It is not grown on wells, as its stalks are not good fodder. Otherwise it has a heavier yield than $jou\'{a}r$, and less seed goes to the acre. It is sown from 15th H\'{a}r to 15th S\'{a}wan, and reaped in K\'{a}tik.

Máh-mung.

Máh-mung are two different pulses, but they are grown together to a great extent in this district. The mode of cultivating both is the same. They are grown chiefly in the Hithár. There is perhaps a little more máh than mung in the Hithár. In the Utar máh is seldom cultivated, while in years of favourable rainfall large areas are sown with mung. Hardly any pulse is grown in Chiniot, and very little on the Jhelam. Most is grown in the Shorkot tahsil. Máh and mung grow well in loams and light soils. Clays do not suit. Moisture in the soil is indispensable. and but little else is required. Two ploughings is all that the soil gets in the way of preparation. The seed is then sown broadcast and is ploughed in. The amount of seed varies from 1 to 1½ topás of máh, and from ¾ to 1 topá of mung per kanál. The muny is smaller than that of mah. It is sown in the end of Sawan and the beginning of Badrú, and ripens in the end of Maghar or a little later. The crop is pulled, not cut. Fields that have been cropped with máh-mung are usually covered with a strong aftercrop of talla grass. In the Utar mung is cultivated in depressions or the beds of channels that carry off surface drainage. One ploughing or two, seldom more, are given. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in. Máh and mung plants suffer from the attacks of grasshoppers-tidda-when young, and later on caterpillars attack the pods and grains.

Moth.

Moth, another pulse, is very seldom sown in the Hithár, but after good rain a considerable area in the Utár is sown with this crop. Moth is an extremely hardy plant, and the zamíndárs say that if it once puts forth sufficient leaves to cover its root, no amount of dry weather affects it. It is supposed to be a capital grain, and the green plant first-class fodder for horses. The bhúsa is also highly prized. The bhúsa of these pulses is of two kinds—phaliút, the broken shreds of the pods and stalks, patri, the leaves. Two ploughings are deemed sufficient. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in. About the same quantity is used as of munq. The sowings are made rather earlier than those of máh-munq in the Hithár, as the cultivator has not the fear of floods before his eyes, and the harvest is consequently also earlier.

Til is grown in small quantities on sailáb lands, and on rain lands in the upland. It is also occasionally sown on the outskirts of a well, and such crops are sometimes irrigated. Very little is grown on the Chiniot sailáb lands. Til loves a light soil, but requires much moisture. It will grow even on rappar lands, sand covered with only a thin layer of soil. Til is much cultivated mixed with other crops,—jowár, máh, and mung. The land is prepared by one or two ploughings. The seed is sown broadcast, mixed with sand, in Sáwan and the early part of Badrú. The amount used is about $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. The flowers are liable to be nipped and to fall off if the wind blows from the north. The root is also attacked by múlá.

Makai, or Indian corn, is grown almost solely in the Chiniot tahsíl. A few patches may be seen round Maghiána. grown both on sailab and well lands, not in the Utar. The southern boundaries of makaí cultivation are Thatti Bálá Rájah on the right, and Táhli Mangíní on the left bank of the Chenàb. The best makaí is grown in the Gilotar villages, between the Halkíwáh nálá and the river, and the villages of Salára, Kázián, and Chiniot. Makaí is not grown to any considerable extent on sailáb lands. It requires a more careful cultivation. The land is ploughed up four times. The seed is sown broadcast, and is ploughed in by one or two subsequent ploughings. The amount of seed is 12 ths., and over, an acre. Makai is generally not hoed on sailab lands. On wells, if there has been no rain, the land is watered and ploughed up twice or oftener. Then manure is put on at the rate of 320 maunds an acre. Two more ploughings are given to mix the manure well into the soil. Then seed at the rate of 24 lbs. to the acre is sown broadcast. Makai is sown thick on wells and is thinned out, the thinnings being used as fodder. The seed is ploughed in, the land rolled, and the well beds and channels made. Makai ripens in 2½ months. It ought to be watered every sixth day if there is no rain, and every eighth day if there is. Makai crops on well lands are hoed twice. Makai sowings are made from Har to Badrú. The sowings in the first ten days of Hár give the best crops. The preparation is the same, whenever the sowings are made. Makai takes very little out of the land, and is almost always followed by a rabi crop, either turnips or wheat. Makai is apparently free from the attacks of the insect world. It suffers from too much rain. If rain is continuous the field cannot be hoed, and the makai stalk does not thicken, and but few maize cobs are produced.

China is a crop that is largely grown in this district on well lands. Two crops are reaped in the year, the first in Jeth and Hár, the second in Maghar. Land is carefully prepared and manured. Only a small area is sown with each crop. The land is first irrigated and then ploughed a couple of times. The seed is then sown broadcast and ploughed in. A rolling is given, and the well beds are made. China requires a large quantity of water. Zamíndárs say it ought to be watered every fourth day. It is perhaps watered

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every fifth or sixth day. The first china crop is used chiefly as fodder. It is very rarely threshed. The second china crop comes in useful for the wheat sowings. The crop is sometimes pulled up or cut half ripe, as much grain beaten out as can be, and the straw used for fodder. More generally the second crop is allowed to ripen. It is impossible to lay down any rule. If there have been good rains and grass is plentiful, the whole of the china will be allowed to ripen; if there has been but little rain and grass is scant, the whole crop may be used as fodder. China is not subject to any particular disease.

Tobacco.

Tobacco is, if properly cultivated, the most paying of all crops. As compared with sugar-cane, it sells for very nearly the same price per kanál, while it only occupies the soil for three months. It does not require any more manure or more frequent waterings. It does not exhaust the soil to the same extent. To ensure a good crop of an acrid and pungent leaf the soil must be heavily manured, but another crop can always be grown after, either jowar or turnips, or even both. Vegetables, onions, yams (ghuián), chína and melons are usually grown with cane. A favourite associated crop is china, which is supposed to protect the young roots of the cane from the rays of the sun, and also to keep the soil cool. China so grown is always used as fodder. But these associated crops are not nearly as valuable as the crops that follow tobacco. In preparing soil for tobacco, four ploughings ought to be given, accompanied by four rollings if required to break the clods. The manure is then spread. Sheep and goats' droppings are best for tobacco. This manure is procured from the sheep cots in the Bár, and costs from Re. 1-0 to Re. 1-8 per six camel loads. A camel carries about five maunds. City refuse costs Rs. 3 a hundred boráhs, containing 50 maunds. On the wells near Jhang, where tobacco is an important crop, 100 boráhs of manure are given to the kanál, about 400 maunds an acre. The manure is spread and well mixed into the soil with two or three ploughings. The land is next rolled until all clods are broken. water channels and beds are made and the transplants are put in, and a watering is at once given. The transplants are obtained thus. They may be purchased at the rate of 4 annas per square cubit, or be raised by the zamindar himself. A marla of seedlings is sufficient to plant out a kanál. The soil of the seedling bed is first carefully prepared and well worked. The seeds are sown broadcast, and are covered with an inch thickness of fine manure, and watered. The seedling bed is covered with grass during the frosty Transplanting commences in the middle of Phágan. The waterings are given at first every three or four days, and they gradually diminish to once a week. The first weeding and hoeing is given about 25 days after the transplanting, as soon as the plants have taken good root. Two or three hoeings are given afterwards. Three or four top dressings are given. The roots are seldom manured. The breaking off of the young shoots from the stem (Kalli bhanna) involves much labour. The flower is also pulled off. The shoots are plucked off every fourth day for a month. If this is well done, the tobacco leaves broaden, and the flavour becomes more acrid. Tobacco is cut a little, about \frac{1}{2} a kanál,

at a time. It is spread on the ground for 3 days. The leaves are not then stripped off, but the plants are heaped on the floor of a dark room and covered with blankets or razáis, and remain thus for a week. At the end of the week the leaves are stripped off the stalks, and twisted into ropes and carried off by the purchaser. A good deal of adulteration goes on. Sajji or lime or saltpetre water is sprinkled on the leaf to make it bitter. Old bulrush mats are burnt, and the ashes mixed with cut tobacco. Sand is mixed with the tobacco twists to make it weigh heavy. The tobacco plant suffers most from the attacks of the múlá and tela insects. The múlá is a whitish-brown woolly caterpillar with a black head. The base of the stem is attacked just underneath the ground. These múlá attacks often commence most inconveniently, just when the tobacco is being sold. It is then the zamindár's care to get up early in the morning and carry off and bury all the plants that have died during the night. The more rain the worse the múlá attacks. Both ripe and unripe plants are attacked. Rain is only needed to wash off dust deposited on the tobacco leaves by dust-storms, or carry off the tela blight. Tela is worst in dry seasons. It is the product of an aphis. There is no remedy but rain. Heavy rain in May is most injurious. All the pungency of the leaf is washed out, and the weight is diminished.

Sugarcane is grown for gúr in the Gilotar and adjoining villages of the Kálowál iláka in the Chiniot tahsíl. In Chiniot itself and Maghiana it is grown to some extent, and sold in the bázárs but is not made into gúr. Sugarcane grows best in a rich loam, well manured, in or near the Hithár, where water is very near to the surface. If it is once flooded by river water, so much the better. but floods are dangerous. Sugarcane requires constant waterings, and if, as in Maghiana, the well is assisted by a jhalar, it is so much the better for this crop. Not only does a jhalar raise more water, but a change from well to river water seems to greatly benefit the cane. There is a good deal of uncertainty about this crop; and this, combined with the immense amount of labour needed, and the long time that it occupies the ground, has brought it into some disrepute in Maghiana, where rice has of late years to a large extent taken its place. Sugarcane is never grown near Maghiana as a sole crop. Vegetables and china, one or other. sometimes both, always accompany it. Land cannot be ploughed too often for sugarcane, and must be heavily manured. The cuttings are planted in trenches and lightly covered over with soil, and a watering is at once given. When the cane plants are three months old, and about 2 or 2½ feet high, the trenches are filled up and manure put to their roots. At this time any other crops that may have been sown with the cane is pulled up. The cane is ready to cut about the middle of Kátik, but it is often in the ground until Phágan. The crop is hoed four for five times. At first it is watered every fourth day up to the 1st Jeth or later, and once a week from that time until it ripens. The worst enemy of sugarcane is the white-ant, and constant waterings are needed to keep this pest away. Jackals are also extremely fond of cane. They

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chew but do not eat it. Frosts are injurious if they are early. A frost-bitten cane loses a large portion of its juice.

Rice.—Very little rice is grown in this district. A little is grown in new silt along the Jhelam, and there is some rice cultivation on the Hithar wells of Maghiana and Jhang. The rice of the Jhelam sailáb is a coarse variety, and not much care is taken in its cultivation. The silt is not ploughed up. The seed is scattered broadcast over the surface and left to take its chance. If the silt is thick, the crop is generally a good one; but if sand is near the surface, the rice dries up when the river goes down. The sowings commence in Sawan-Badru. About 16 lbs. of seed go to the acre. The crop ripens in three months. This mode of rice cultivation is called pokh. Another method is to transplant seedlings into these mud banks. No ploughings are given; the seedlings are simply stuck into the mud. The seedlings are grown on a well. This mode is called roth. The crop takes the same time to ripen, cultivated either way. On the Maghiana well lands the soil is most carefully prepared for rice. Two or three ploughings are given, and the land is well manured. Then, when the soil has been well worked, the well beds are formed, the water turned on, and the transplanting done by boys. The continual bending down makes this rather hard work, and they are paid liberally. The crop is watered twice a week. The soil must on no account be allowed to dry up. Jhalárs are largely used in Maghiana to assist the wells. Harvest time is in Katik. The seedling beds are prepared, and the seed sown in Baisakh and Jeth. About two pai, between 12 and 16 lbs., of seed are used for 8 marlas, and the transplants given are sufficient for an acre. Transplanting is effected in Sawan in Maghiana. Rice does not suffer from diseases. It is a crop that gives a heavy yield.

Kangni, Sawák, Mandúa, Kúría.

Kangni, sawák, mandúa and kúria are crops that are grown more or less in various parts of the district, but the total area under them is insignificant. Sawák and kúría are seldom seen. Patches are grown on wells for fodder by zamíndárs who keep horses, but the grain is seldom threshed. They are grown on well lands as a kharif crop, and require constant irrigation. Kangni is grown to some extent on the leased wells in the Government Bar to the east of Jhang. Stray patches are seen on wells in villages, generally associated with cotton, rarely by themselves. Mandúa is more generally grown in the two southern tahsils, hardly ever in Chiniot. It is sown on stiff saline clays, and does well where other crops hardly germinate. It is a capital fodder crop, and can generally be cut twice, often three times, if there is rain. In Daulúana in the Kachhi of Shorkot and adjoining villages, it is largely grown for its grain as a single crop. In other parts it is more usually found as a mixed crop with cotton. It is sown in Chet, Baishakh, and reaped in Assú, Katik. The land should be ploughed up twice or thrice. The seed is sown broadcast at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per acre. A watering should be given once a week. Mandúa, it may be worth noting, is the The systems of cultivation seem to be curiously ragi of Mysore. different.

Melons are largely grown all over the district on sailáb, well, and rain lands. The rain-land cultivation is confined to the Bár, and water melons only are, as a rule, sown. Zamíndárs say that they grow wild in years of good rainfall, and there is no reason for disbelieving them. In sailáb lands the seed is sown with a drill, and the drills are wide apart. Two or three ploughings are given, and one rolling last of all before the seed is drilled in, at the rate of about ½ topa a kanál, about 15 lbs. to the acre. Sowings are made in Chet, and the fruit ripens in three months. Sowings are made at intervals. The chief melon cultivation is, however, on wells in the neighbourhood of large villages and towns. melons of Jhang and Chiniot are exceptionally good. The land is first irrigated liberally, but not over-manured, then ploughed and The seed is sown broadcast at the rate of about $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to The seed is sometimes steeped in water and sometimes the acre. not. Young melon plants are benefited by rain, but it is injurious later on. The first sowings are made in Phágan, but most melons are sown in Chet. Melons sown in Phágan on good cool land are not watered until 1st Chet, but the melon beds are constantly hoed and weeded. Melons sown in Chet are watered regularly from the first. Well-tended melon fields near a town will be hoed perhaps 10 or 12 times. The crop is generally sold to Kirárs on the ground. They do all the weeding and watching, the proprietor or cultivator being only responsible for watering the crop. The waterings are more frequent when the plants begin to fruit. Melons do well in a light loam. Round Jhang they are grown in a soil that appears to be slightly removed from sand. The plant is subject to tela blight and to hadda. It is not very clear what hadda is, but it appears that the leaves are attacked by some winged insect and die, and the vhole plant withers away. is most injurious to melons on wells.

Ussú is hardly grown at all in this district. In very favourable rains, a large area is sown on the Kachhi wells as a báráni crop, and is afterwards watered once or twice. The preparation is of the roughest description. One ploughing or two are given. The seed is sown broadcast and ploughed in. The crop is used for fodder. Sowings take place in Assú and Badrú. The crops ripen in Chet. Ussú is a hardy plant, but suffers a little from worms and caterpillars.

The division of the crops has now to be described. After the The division of the grain has been threshed and winnowed, it is collected in one heap (dheri), and is divided between the landlord and tenant and kamins. First of all the village mulla's fee, rasúl arwáhí, is measured out, and next that of the village mirásí (jakh). The remaining grain is then divided between the landlord and tenant according to the rent conditions. It is measured out in topás. last portion of the heap is not divided. It is called talwara, and is reserved to pay the kamins, each of whom gets what he is entitled to therefrom. The fees of the kamins have already been noticed at page 90, 91. The weighman generally manages to leave just enough grain to satisfy these fees, kamiana. If any grain

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crops (batái).

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remains over, it is usually made a present to the tenant. Some hard landlords insist on taking their share. If the talwara is insufficient, the deficiency is made up from the proprietor's and cultivator's heaps proportionately to the shares on which the produce is divided. Each carries off his share, and the business is finished.

The reaper's wage,

It is the general custom throughout the district to pay the reaper a daily wage, but in some villages he is paid from the grain heap. The normal pay of a reaper is 3 sheaves $(moh \acute{a}n)$ for every 100 sheaves reaped and tied. This would make his wage $\frac{1}{34}$ th of the produce, but in reality he manages to obtain a much larger share. His wage sheaves are twice as big as the ordinary ones, and instead of 1 in 34 he really takes two. He also gets a bunch of ears (trárán). In Leiah the difference between the reaper's and the ordinary sheaf is recognised, and the one is called dhárwán (the winner), and the other hárwán (the loser). Saras and niras, great If the reaper is paid from the and small, are also names used. grain heap, he takes his fee with the other kamins. calculated at so much a day or so much a kanál, rarely at a fixed share of the produce. In one Shorkot village this latter rate is fixed at 10 topás per kharwár, or $\frac{1}{16}$ th. For cutting well wheat there is not much variation in a reaper's rate of pay, but in the case of sailáb lands it has an upward tendency. The landlord may be anxious on the score of floods to get his grain in as early as possible, or the crop may be full of thistles and camel thorn, and the reapers cannot be got to touch it except for pay higher than the ordinary. It is the general custom throughout the district for the reaper's fee to be paid to whoever reaps; whether he be the tenant or not.

The winnower.

The winnower is paid at the rate of $\frac{1}{10}$ th, 4 topás per kharwár. Winnowing is performed with a reed tray (chhaj), and the man who winnows is called chhajjí. He is almost always a man of the sweeper (chúhra) class. His pay is high, but it covers not winnowing only, but all the other manifold jobs that he does for the proprietor during the year. The threshing (gáh karna) of the grain is usually performed by the tenant's bullocks, and he is not paid for this work; but if another man's bullocks are called in, he takes a regular fee (gahera), or 1 or 2 topás per yoke per day. There are some exceptions to the above rule in the case of upland wells, where there is some difficulty in obtaining tenants. A topa or a topa-and-a-half is allowed out of the talwára heap, half of which goes to the proprietor and half to the tenant.

Average yield. Production and consumption of food grains, Table No. XXI shows the estimated average yield in its. per acre of each of the principal staples as shown in the Administration Report of 1881-82, while below will be found the more detailed estimates which were used to calculate the value of the gross produce for purposes of assessment in the Settlement of 1880. The average yield of the principal staples has in many cases been noticed while describing each in the preceding pages. The average consumption of food per head has already been noticed at page 49. The total consumption of food grains by the population of the

district as estimated in 1878 for the purposes of the Famine

Grain.		Agricul- turists.	Non-agri- culturists.	Total.
Wheat Inferior grains Pulses	· .	378,418 ± 21° 194 ± 255,432 ±	70 (,545 226,1 79 326,646	1,081,963 538,363 582 078
Total		941,044	1,256,350	2,202 374

Report is shown in maunds in the margin. The figures are based upon an estimated population of 348,027 souls. On the other hand, the average consumption

per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough estimate of the total production, exports, and imports of food grains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 152, Famine Report) that some 200,000 maunds were imported on the average in each year to meet the local consumption. Of this, three-quarters were said to be wheat and the remainder gram, bájra, &c. The imports were chiefly from Sháhpur, Míánwáli Dera Ismáil Khan, and Montgomery.

The assumed yield in maunds per acre on the various soils for different crops, used by Mr. Steedman in the recent assessments, is given below for Jhang and Shorkot. The Chiniot produce estimates were framed by Mr. Fryer, and are not given by Mr. Steedman:—

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Average yield. Production and consumption of food grains.

Settlement rates of yield per acre.

		Ans	UMFD WHEAT	YIELD PER A	CRE.
Circle.	Tahsil.	Chahi Khalis.	Chahi Sailah, &e.	Sailaba.	Barani.
		Mds.	Mds	Mds.	Mds.
River Jhelam	Jhang	9	10	71	5 ½
River Chenab	{ Jhang Shorket .	9 9	9 10	61	5⅓ 6
Centre Chenab	{ Jhang Shorkot .	9 9	9 10	6 <u>1</u>	6
Centre Jhelam	Jhang	. 9	10	71	5 t
Kachhi	· { Jhang Shorkot	8½ 8	10	6	5 } 5
Bar	· { Jhang Shorkot .	8 <u>‡</u>		67	6
Utar Vichanh	Jhang .	81/2	9	6	

For jowár, cotton, and barley, the differentiated rates were—

Tahsil.	Soil.	1	Cotton.	Jowar.	Barley.
Shorkot (Chahi Khalis Chahi Sailuba, &c. Sailuba and Barani		Mds. 4 5 3	Mds. 6 7 5	Mds. 10 11 8

Tahsil.	Soil.	Circle.	Cotton.	Jowar.	Barley.
Jhang	Chahi Khalis (Chahi Sailab, &c ! Sailab and Barani (River and Centre Jhelam Rest of Tabal River and Centre Jhelam Restof Tabal River and Centre Jhelam	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.
,	{	Rest of Tahsil	. 3	5	7

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Settlement rates of yield per acre.

Besides wheat, cotton and jowar, the only other staples are gram, turnips, mung-muh and peas. The assumed rates of yield are given below:—

	 	Gram.	Turnips.	Mak-Mung.	Peas.
Jhang Shorket	 	 M. S. 6 0 5 30	Rs. A. P. 12 2 0 12 0 0	M. S. 5 0 5 20	Rs. A. P. 6 0 0 8 0 0

The above crops occupy in Shorkot 92 per cent. and in Jhang 93 per cent. of the total area under crops.

Arboriculture and Forests.

Table No. XVII shows the whole area of waste land which is under the management of the Forest Department. The whole 123 square miles are unreserved forests. Their nature and adminnistration are discussed in Section B of Chapter V.

The following note on the forests of the district has been kindly furnished by Mr. Wild of the Forest Department. The principal trees of the districts have already been described at pages 15—18. The date palms of Jhang are noticed at page 81:—

"The figures below show the forests of the district under the control of the Forest Department. They adjoin the Bár forests of the Gujránwála district. They are studded with a low open jungle of jand (Prosopis spicigera); van (Salvadora oleoides); karil (Capparis aphylla); and mallá (Zizyphus nummularia), sometimes one, sometimes another predominating; but never of such magnitude as to produce the impression of a forest. The trees are stunted, often decayed, and fit for nothing but firewood. The ground however is, in seasons of a fair rainfall, thickly covered with grasses of various sorts, many of them excellent fodder; and the importance and value of the tract for purposes of pasture is undoubted. The soil is comparatively rich, and only requires irrigation to be fairly productive. The wood produce is some 45 to 50 miles distant from any centre of consumption, and it is therefore difficult to utilise it. The rakhs came under the Forest Department on 5th August 1872. The Government right in the land is absolute, there being no village rights in the tract. The grazing lets for some Rs. 10,000 yearly. It is proposed to declare this area as a protected forest, and to include it in the Gujránwála district, with the forests of which it is continuous."

Names of Forests.			Area, acres.	Names o	f Forests	•	Area, acres.	
				Broubht	foaward		43,670	
Uchkera			3,589	Kirana		٠	7,333	
Ahlniwah			7,355	Butwali			6,357	
Giluana			6,338	Saidpura	•		6,400	
Musrana			6,356	Shadiwali			7,161	
Azri			5,942	Ghari			6,873	
Kazianwali			5,592	Shahkot			4,008	
Farranwali			8,498					
Carr	ied ove	r.	43,670	Tota	l Acres		81,892	

SECTION B.-DOMESTIC ANIMALS.

According to the Punjab Administration Report of 1878-79, the stock of this district was as below. Further details are given in Table No. XXII:—

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Domestic
Animals.

Stock statistics.

Cows and Buffaloes.	Horses.	Ponies.	Don- keys.	Sheep and Goats,	Camels.
124,250	1,752	230	3,207	221,560	9,399

These figures appear to be open to suspicion. According to the enumeration of 1875, the last that was made for *Tirni* purposes, the numbers of cattle were—

Cows and Bullocks, &c	Buffaloes.	Sheep and Goats.	Camels.
127,810	29,928	271,011	20,162

This enumeration is probably nearer the mark than the one given in the Administration Report, although the difficulties attendant on numbering cattle in this district are enormous.

The horses of this district deservedly bear a high reputation. The mares are esteemed by competent judges to be among the best in the Punjab. A horse fair is held annually and prizes distributed, but the fair is not very popular among the people, and the Tahsíldárs have generally to make an energetic "whip" to get the zamíndárs in. There are an enormous number of different

Name of b	reed.	Name of breeders.
Hassian		Muhammad Khan and others, Beloche of Chhatt
Pabni Kajlan Garrian		Bharwanas of Khiwa and Mukhiana, Sayads of Ratta Matta, Sayads of Kot Isa Shah,
Matwalian Morman Jiwanian	• • •	Liwanas of Rajanas. Savads of Ahm alpur. Ahanas of Kot Khan.

breeds of horses recognised among themselves by the zamindars of this district. They are usually named from some particular mares of super-excellent quality, and belong to a particular family. A few of the best known are mentioned in the margin. According

to native opinion a mare ought not to be put to a horse, before she is $3\frac{1}{2}$ years old, and there are two proper seasons, one in Chet-Baisákh (15th March—15th May), the other Assú-Kátik (15th September—15th November). The foal lives on the dam's milk alone for the first month only. In the second, other milk is given in addition. Camel's milk is most esteemed; if it cannot be procured, cow's or goat's milk is given. The milk is sweetened with sugar and is given in small quantities at first; and is gradually increased to as much as 5 or 6 seers a day. The foal is weaned when six months old from the mare, but continues to be given other milk for from 4 to 6 months longer. Gram soaked in milk is also given. Colts are allowed to run loose in the young wheat, and also given jouár and moth. Breaking-in commences when they are two years old. They are at first ridden bare-back. An amble is the favourite pace, but an accomplished mare is

Horses.

Domestic Animals.

Horses.

Chapter IV, B. taught to go through many other exercises. A horse in this district is considered to be full of work up to the age of 12 or 13 years, and to deteriorate afterwards. A mare will go on producing foals until she is 15 years old. Horses are fed as below:-

Period.	Food.
15th December -31st March 1st April-31st June 1st July-31st August 1st September-15th November 15th November-15th December	Green wheat. Bausa, grass and grain. Grass and grain. Indian corn cobs, jowar, and bujra heads and stalks. Missa thusa, jowar.

Every horse-breeder sows early half, or a quarter, of an acre with wheat, or mixed wheat and barley, to afford green food at an early date for his horses. This is ready a good month before ordinary wheat. A good deal of importance is attached to this point, and the zamindars vie among themselves to have the best and earliest kháwíd. Grain is given regularly by wealthy men, but, as a rule, ordinary zamindárs only give it when they cannot get green food or fodder (patthe). It is not given as a matter of course. To get a horse into splendid condition you stall him in a darkened shed with green wheat up to his hocks, in much the same way as fat cattle are fed at Home with straw up to their knees. Boiled moth and máh, mixed with molasses and turmeric, is also given. The process takes 30 days, and at the end of the time the horse comes out as fat as butter, and unfit to do any work whatever. The names of a horse according to age are given below:-

	To 6 months.	To 2 years.	To 3½ years.	To 41 years.	To 6 years.	After 6 years.
Horse .	Bachhera.	Sarral, Bihan,) Doak.	Chausala	Panjsala.	Malle Panj.
	Dacimori	Dinan.	, ,	Gh	ori.	

The colours in this district are kumáit, dark bay; kakka kumait, chestnut; kakka, light bay; sáwa, grey; nukra, white; china, roan : garra, piebald : mushki, black ; kulla, something between a light bay and a light brown. A horse's colour ought always to be bright. Among the unlucky spots on a horse are the following :--

> Tára pesháni, a small white star or blaze on the forehead. This is an abominable mark; if the horse has a white face, it is all right.

> Arjal, two legs, or one, different in colour from the rest of the body. If they are all four the same colour, it is a good point; four white stockings are good, two bad; and one very bad.

> Bhaurián are rough spots on the coat, not liked, especially if near the tail. Náganián, a line of rough hair on the neck, if pointing to the front, a good point, if backwards, towards the rider, exceedingly bad.

Garra, eyes of different colours.

Partnership in horses is carried in this district to an extent unknown in most other parts of the Punjab. It is called bháiwáli. A share in a horse is called sum. A one-quarter share is pair, a oneeighth do-band, and a one-sixteenth tankala band. To be partners with another man in a mare is the next thing to, and very nearly as good as being his relation. Strong objections are sometimes made in Court to a witness, on the ground that he, and the party who called him, held shares in the same horses. No rules whatever regulate the feeding or keeping of a mare held in partnership. If one of the sharers wants her, he sends for her. It is a point of honour for the partner who has temporary charge of the mare to keep her in first-class condition as long as he has her. If she gets into heat, he arranges to put her to a horse. A partner, who rears the foal of a mare held jointly till it is two years old, is entitled to a one-quarter share in addition to his original share in the remaining three-fourth share. This is known as hak sàmbh. A horse's hide is not used in any manufacture, and is considered worthless.

The camels of this district are divided into the Thal camels, Thalwan, and those of the Bárs, Bàri. The Thal camel is a much lighter beast than the Bar camel, and cannot carry so heavy a load. The female becomes in heat when 3 years old, in the months of Maghar—Chet. The period of gestation is 13 months. The foal is only allowed to suck a small quantity of milk for the first fifteen days. After that the foal sucks at will, and begins to browse after 21 or 22 days. Weaning takes place when the foal is 12 months old. The udder of the dam is tied up in a bag. A camel is first loaded when 3 years old, and broken into the nose string. To start with, not more than 3 maunds is the load. A full grown camel carries 8 maunds. A laden camel will go double stages, or from 20 to 30 miles a day comfortably. Only males are, as a rule, laden. A male camel will work 20 years, and a female bears up to the same age. A male camel of average quality used to be worth Rs. 60, and a female Rs. 80. Prices have gone up at least 50 per cent. of late, owing to the demand for camels for work in Afghánistán. Sikhs and others from the Mánjha buy up the surplus stock annually. A camel is not an affectionate animal. He is spiteful and bears malice, and shutar kina is the climax of revengefulness. names for camels at different ages are given below:-

	To 1 year.	To 2 years.	To 3 years.	To 4 years.	To 5 years	To 5 years.	To 7 years.	To S years.
Male .	Toda.		Triban.		1	-	:	1
Female .	Todi.	Do.	Puraf.	Lihari.	Tro	kar	Kut	eli.

After 8 years and thenceforth the male is called armosh or $\hat{u}t$, and the female jharot. A camel is shorn annually, and the hair made into ropes and borahs used by camel men. The hide is worth from Rs. 2 to 3, and is made into kuppus, huge jars for carrying $gh\lambda$.

The bullocks of this district are very poor, undersized beasts. They are not bred with any care, and the zamíndárs do not purchase

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Bullocks and Buffaloes.

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Domestic Animals.

Bullocks and Buffaloes. the high class bullocks that are bred in Sindh and Dera Gházi Khán. A bullock is put to work when 4 years old, and works well until he is 9 or 10. A bullock's age averages from 12 to 13 years.

Buffaloes are hardly used at all for agricultural purposes in this district. If a male is calved, his throat is cut, and he is devoured within a few hours of his birth. Bullocks are fed from Maghar to Magh on turnips, bhusa and cotton seed; from Phágan to Baisákh on green pea stalks, methra, wheat and grass; from Jeth to Kátik on jowár, rawán, chína, bhusa, and grass. A bullock is called ruchha to 1 year, rahrká to 3 years, vahr to 5 years, and then he becames a dánd. A buffalo is kutta for the first twelve months, and jhota afterwards. On the average (and a poor average it is) a bullock is worth Rs. 20 and a buffalo Rs. 15. The skins of dead buffaloes and bullocks are given to the mochis by zamíndárs, and sold to them by non-agriculturists. A bullock's hide is worth Re. 1, a buffalo's Rs. 2.

Cows and milch Buffaloes,

Cows and female buffaloes commence to breed when they are 5 and 6 years old respectively. The period of gestation in each case is 9 and 10 months. For the first three days after birth the calf is only allowed a little milk. The milk is then too rich for the calf's digestion. The first day's milk is called bauhli, and that of the 2nd and 3rd, hoblú. Calves are weaned when three months old. After three months they graze, and are only allowed to suck for a few moments to please the cow. Where, in the case of a buffalo, the calf is a male and is devoured without delay, various artifices are used to induce the buffalo to give milk. On the average a cow gives $2\frac{1}{2}$, and a buffalo 5, seers of milk a day, including all the good, bad, and indifferent cattle that are in the district. A cow gives five and a buffalo seven calves. Zamíndárs will never sell milk. It is one of the strict points of honour not to do so. Ghi is produced and exported to a large extent. With a good year of grass in the Bár, milk or buttermilk is worthless. It is often far easier to get than water. Hindu shop-keepers attach themselves to all the large herds of cattle in the Bar in favourable

	Cow.	Buffalo.
To 1 year, 3 years, first calf Afterwards	Vachhi, Vahri, Dhanap Gai,	Katti. Jhoti. Garap. Majh.

years and buy up the ght. It goes from Chiniot to Amritsar and Lahore, and from the southern portion of the district to Mooltan and Karáchi. The names for cows and buffaloes of different ages will be found in the margin. Cow and buffalo hides are

worth much the same as those of bullocks and male buffaloes.

Sheep and Goats.

Sheep and goats are among the most useful stock of the district. The ewes are put to the tup when $1\frac{1}{2}$ years old. The period of gestation is six months. From one to three lambs are produced at a birth; for the first 20 days the lamb gets all the milk. Afterwards the lamb begins to browse, and is only given a small portion of the milk. The ewe gives milk for four months. Lambs and kids are always kept separate from their dams. When their full supply of milk is stopped, green shoots and branches of kikar, ber, &c., are given them to nibble. Sheep are shorn twice a year, in September—October and April—May. About a seer of

wool is given in the two shearings. Wool is now a very valuable wool is cheaper:-

commodity, and zan.indárs say that flock-masters in the Thal wear bracelets of gold. It mostly goes down to Karáchi. The figures below give the price of Bar wool and also of goat's hair at Maghiana for the last twenty years, in rupees per maund. Thal

		Year.	1801	1862	1863	1864	1865	1Srid	1867	8987	1879	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1878	1879	1880
Rupees per maind.	}	Wool Hair	8 5½	10 5 ³ / ₅	1:	11 5 3		1	ıl	_		5 1 t) !	- 1	-		10'9 9 6 <u>1</u>		l i	18} 9

Sheep skins are used for making women's shoes, covering saddles, &c. As far as the age at which put to the male, number of kids produced, and method of rearing, there is hardly any difference between sheep and goats. A goat gives from 2 seers to 4th seer of milk a day; nothing is made from the milk. usually killed when 5 or 6 years old. Sheep and goats produce about 5 times. Goat's hair is shorn every six months, and is made into pannier bags, saddle bags, ropes, nose bags, salítás, &c. It is called jat. The names of sheep and goats according to age are given below:-

	SH	EEP.	GOATS.			
	Female.	Male,	Malc. Female			
To 6 months To 1 year Afterwards	Leli Ghirapi Bhed	Lela . Ghnap . Chhatra	Bakra, Pathora Chhilota Chhela	Pathori. Kharapi, Kharap. Chheli.		

The donkeys can hardly be called agricultural stock. No zamíndár owns one or would ride on one. They belong to Kírárs and kamins, chiefly michhis. They are used to carry manure from the sheep-folds on to the land, and in various other ways. The donkey of these parts is of the most ordinary description.

SECTION C.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES, AND MANUFACTURES.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report, and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII, of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the

Population.	Towns.	Villages.	
Agricultural Non-agricultural	5,19 4 31,787	168,346 189,969	
Total	30,981	358,315	

population of 15 years of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent

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Occupations. industries and manufactures.

Sheep and Goats.

Donkeys.

Occupations of the People.

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Occupations, industries and manufactures.

Occupations of the people.

upon each male of over 15 years of age is the same, whatever his occupation. These figures, however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agriculture with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 133 to 142 of Table No. XIIA, and in Table No. XIIB of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations are exceedingly incomplete.

Commercial classes.

Jhang is not a commercial district. Most of the commerce is local and petty. Of the total shown as commercial population, the chief are the baniás or petty shop-keepers, who number nearly half of the whole; next in numerical importance come traders in salt; and next dealers in grain. The Khojás are the wealthiest traders in the district. The Khojás of Chiniot trade chiefly in ghí, cotton, wool, leather and horns, which they export to Calcutta and Bombay, and import thence cloth, indigo and silk.

Principal industries and manufactures.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82. On this subject the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Census Report for 1881:—

"The industrial classes are chiefly composed of páolis, or weavers. Their women assist them largely in their handicraft, and some 1,200 women are shown as occupied in preparing the warp for weaving. Beside this, spinning and grinding corn are the principal female occupations. Women do not work in the fields in Jhang. The páclis form nearly a third of the entire industrial classes, and are chiefly to be found in villages, there being 15 weavers in the villages to 2 in the They are greatest in numbers in the Jhang tahsil. In Jhang you find every class and tribe represented among the weavers. Even poor Siáls do not despise the profits to be obtained by throwing the shuttle. The mochis are the next in numerical importance, then potters, then basket and mat-makers (chhaj pattal banánewála), carpenters, pinjárás or cotton-cleaners, and charohás or washermen. Chiniot is remarkable for its wood-work; also for its namdáhs, which are cheap and of excellent quality. Very fine decorated door frames are made Also fine Kalamdáns or pen-cases, boxes, and kajáwás. Carved and foliated work, and geometrical and foliated tracery suitable for balconies, doors, door-posts, and other architectural adjuncts can also be made. Some beautiful specimens of ('hiniot wood-work have been made for the Lahore Exhibition. Kot Isa Sháh is remarkable for coloured wood-work, legs of charpais, &c. First-rate saddles and harness are made in the towns of Jhang and Maghiána. The shoes of Maghiana are valued for their fine embroidered gold work. Very good imitation Chubb locks are made in Jhang and are exported to other districts."

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

"There is no export from Jhang of enamelled ware or of articles of silversmith's work, but it is evident, from the contributions from

Maghiana to the Punjab Exhibition of 1882, that silver enamel is wrought there, though not perhaps with the neatness and finish that

distinguish the work of Mooltan.

"Chiniot, in this district, has long had a reputation for its carpentry and wood-carving. In the native scheme of town-life the house is frequently built to fit the irregular space at the owner's disposal, and its chief decorative features are elaborately ornamented doors and window-frames, which are often brought from considerable distances; just as Scandinavian doors and the like are now brought ready made to London. It is for this kind of work that the Chiniot wood-carvers are chiefly known. The wood used is usually shisham, locally tahli. The design of this really admirable work, though ornate and tending, like many other branches of modern Indian art, to excessive minuteness, is still remarkably pure and good. The carving is sharp and clear, the mergols or spandrels of the arches and the details of the pilasters are correctly drawn, while the free use of panels of geometric tracery of an Arabic character, both framed and carven, gives an air of solidity and richness. It is surprising that no use has hitherto been made either by private persons or by the Government of the best and cheapest carpentry in the province.

"At Chiniot also is wrought an inlay of brass in shisham wood, bearing a general resemblance to that of Hoshiárpur, but much bolder, freer, and better in design. This is applied to desks, glove boxes, &c., but is obviously capable of more varied and extensive application. The

contrast of the brass with the dark wood is most effective."

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district. Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. The imports of food-grains have already been noticed at page 121. Jhang is an importing district, especially as regards food grains. Cloth and Manchester goods come from Mooltan and Calcutta, partly by rail and partly on camels. Lime is brought down the Jhelam from Khusháb. imported from Wazírábád, Jalálpur to the east of Gujrát, Khusháb, and Mooltan in boats, and from Chúnián on camels. Jowar, gram, barley, moth, mung and oil seeds are brought on camels from Kamália, Sirsa, and Firozpur. Some wheat also comes from Firozpur at times. Rice is sent on camels from Amritsar and Lahore. Oil and oil seeds are imported from Amritsar and Bhakkar in Dera Ismáil Khán. Moist sugar comes from Muzaffarnagar, Jullundur and Amritsar by rail and camels. Raw sugar (gúr) is brought from Siálkot and Muzaffarnagar, and lump sugar from Mooltan. Fruits are brought down from Ghazní and Kandáhár by powindàhs. Spices, condiments, and drugs come from Amritsar. Timber is floated down the Chenáb from Wazírábád and Kashmír territory. Cotton and thread are brought on camels from Dipálpur, Mooltan, Firozpur and Sháhpur. Hardware comes up from Karáchi in boats, not by rail. Amritsar also supplies a little. Camels, donkeys and boats bring salt from Khusháb and Pind Dádan **Khán, an**d alum from Kálábágh.

The export trade of this district consists mainly of a coarse description of cloth, *khaddar*, which is made in the district and sold chiefly to *powindàh* merchants. In 1879 eight lakhs of rupees' worth of this cloth was sold in Maghiana alone. Most goes to

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Exports.

Afghánistán, and not a little to Dera Ismáil Khán, Dera Gházi Khán, Sakhi Sarwar, and Mooltan. The means of conveyance are camels. Boats are hardly ever used. Soap is sent in large quantities to Núrpur, in the Sháhpur district, to Kálábágh, Dera Ismáil Khán, and the Salt Range country, on donkeys and camels. Wool is exported to Karáchi and Firozpur. In favourable years immense quantities of ghí are produced in the Bár, and are exported to Amritsar, Firozpur, Bannú, and Dera Ismail Khán, on camels, and to Karáchi by boat. The sajjí of this district goes to Amritsar, Siálkot, Gujránwála and Wazírábád. The principal marts are Maghiána and Chiniot. Kot Isa Sháh, Wású Astháná and Ahmadpur are busy villages. Coarse cloth, wool, sajjí and soap, hides and ghí, are the exports. Food grains, sugar in various forms, and miscellaneous articles, are all imports. The fairs of the district have already been noticed at page 51.

SECTION D.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Prices, wages, rent rates, interest.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bázár prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent rates in Table No. XXI; but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value. The figures of Table No. XXXII give the average values of land in rupees per acre,

Period.	Sale.	Mortgage.		
1868-69 to 1573-74 1874-75 to 1577-78 1878-79 to 1861-82	Rs. A. 12 2 17 8 20 14	Rs. A. 6 15 11 15 15 14		

values of land in rupees per acre, shown in the margin, for sale and mortgage; but the quality of land varies so enormously, and the value returned is so often fictitious, that but little reliance can be placed upon the figures. The wages of

agricultural labour in the villages have already been noticed in Chapter III (page 89), and rent rates and the selling price of land in the same Chapter at pages 86—88 and 93—95. These figures are taken from the Settlement Report, and are more trustworthy than those of the table quoted above.

The following are the village prices of the chief agricultural staples used for the conversion of produce estimates into money at the Settlement of 1880:—

		KHARIF.					RABI.	
	Cotton	Jowar.	Mah- mung.	Til.	Bajra.	Wheat.	Gram.	
Chiniot Jhang	12 <u>1</u> 12 <u>1</u>	32 <u>1</u>	23 28	15 15½	273 27	30	38 3 40	
Shorkot	121	32	Mah 27 Mung 30	7 75	271	30	36	

On these prices Mr. Steedman remarks:—

"I do not think the adopted prices are too high. They rather err on the side of lowness. It is probable that the average price-current of the next 20 years will show considerably higher rates. The opening

Prices of agricultural staples.

of the railway to Karáchi and the thereby increased facility for exporting grain to Europe will most certainly tend to keep up the prices of food grains in the Punjab. It will prevent all accumulation of grain. As soon as the price of wheat falls to the point at which it becomes profitable to export it to Europe, it will be exported, and prices will hardly ever fall below this minimum. In Jhang the prices of food grains depend almost entirely upon the prices ruling in other districts. A good harvest does not necessarily bring down prices, unless harvests elsewhere are good and prices falling. The food grains produced in Jhang do not suffice for the consumption of the resident population, and large imports are made from outside districts. The wheat harvest of 1878 was above the average, and that of 1879 a bumper crop. Yet prices were higher after both than during the famine year of 1868-69. If exportation to Europe maintains the prices of the food grains in the Punjab at a steady high rate, prices in this district will be generally a little higher, because the home production is deficient, and the price of grain grown in Jhang will always tend to rule at a rate equal to the grain in adjoining districts, plus the cost of carriage to Jhang. For these reasons, I think that the prices assumed are far more likely to be lower than higher than future prices."

The linear measure used in Jhang is-

 1 quarter áná
 ...
 1 inch.

 24 inches
 ...
 ...
 1 hath (hand).

 3 háths
 ...
 1 karam, or double pace.

 3 karams
 ...
 1 kan.

 4 kans
 ...
 1 chain of 66 feet.

The square measure is-

	square sirsáís.	karam or 1 squ	 are ka	 n	 	1 sirsáí. 1 marla.
	marlás					l kanál.
	kanáls				 	l bígah.
2	bígahs				 	1 ghomáo = acre.

The country karam is some six inches longer than the karam used in the Settlement Survey. Otherwise there is no difference in the two measures. In measuring up crops that have been sold standing, the rate is usually so much per kanál of 22 marlás. The extra two marlás are allowed to compensate for bare patches, water-courses and borders. Melons, green wheat, tobacco, sugarcane, turnips, &c., are near large towns sold in this way.

There is only one measure of capacity throughout the district:—

	thúlas		 	 	l paropí.
	paropis		 • • •	 	1 topá.
	topáhs		 	 	l pái.
	páis		 	 	1 bhora.
40	páis	• • •	 	 	l kharwár.

The topah is the standard, and the other measures vary proportionately to the variation in the topah. The topah is nominally two seers in weight, but generally something under. Wheat is the standard, and there is of course the difference between the weight of a topah of wheat and a topah of other grain. In this district the topah varies from $1\frac{1}{2}$ seers to 2 seers through $1\frac{2}{4}$, $1\frac{7}{8}$, $1\frac{15}{16}$. There are several ways of using the topah. When the measure is so held that only grain actually in the measure is given, it is said

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Weights and measures.

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to be used *gokhú*. If some grain is piled up on the thumb and finger between which the rim is held, it is said to be used *chappa*. There is only one measure of weight.

16 chittacks 1 seer of 80 tolás. 40 seers 1 maund,

Cotton is sold by weight, and also wool and goat's hair. Ght is purchased from the Bár graziers by the kachcha seer of §th seer.

The figures in the margin show the communications of the district as returned in quinquennial Table No. I of the Administra-

Communications.	Miles.
Navigable rivers	166
Unmetalled roads	954

tion Report for 1878-79, while Table No. XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowances. Table No. XIX shows the area taken up by Government for

communications in the district.

Rivers.

The Chenáb and Jhelam, which unite in this district at Trimmu ferry, are navigable for country craft throughout their courses in this district. The ferries and the distances between them are shown below, following the downward course of each river.:—

Rivers.	·s	tations.		Distance in milos.	Remarks.
Chenab	Shekhan		 		Ferry.
	Chiniot			12	Do.
	Sajanko		 	10	Do.
	Tahli Mangini		 	10	Do.
	Thatta Muhamm	ad Shah		7	Do.
	Chorgalli			5	Do.
	Alli Pur		 . 1	6	Do.
	Billi		 	3	Do.
	Jhang			4	Do.
	Mohal		1	4	Do.
Jhelam .	Kot Isa Shah		. 1		Do.
	Mari		1	7	Do.
	Kalera		 	8	Do.
	Kot Khan		 . 1	5	Do.
	Sajhar		 . 1	4	Do.
	Machhiwal		 	6	Do.
	Shahidanwala		ŀ	5	Do.
	Kot Maldeo		(8	Do.
	Chauntra		. (7	Do.
Joint Jhelam and	Trimmu		 . 1	4	Ferry and boat-
Chenab.			1		bridge.
	Haweli Bahadur	Sháh	. 1	8	Ferry,
	Islampur			5	Do.
	Hassuwali]	6	Do,
	Badh Rajbana			7	Do.
	Kharanwala		. 1	6	Do.
	Dab Kalan		 	7	Do.
	Kacha Kamira		 1	6	Do.
	Faqir Sial		 	6	Do.

The bridge of boats is of the utmost value, indeed almost indispensable in the interests of the powindáhs and passengers by the mail cart. The difficulty and trouble attendant on embarking a refractory camel in a ferry boat is only equalled by the roughness of the measures taken. Zamíndárs much prefer to cross the rivers when in flood on inflated skins. The passage is effected much quicker; there is no waiting for the boat, and there is no charge. Zamíndárs, even of the best class, prefer the sarnái to the ferry boat.

CHAP. IV .- PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

The main line of road is that from Dera Ismáil Khán to Chícháwatni on the Láhore and Mooltan Railway. There is a mail cart service between Chícháwatni and Cháh Bhareri, a distance of Prices, weights 88 miles, under the management of the Deputy Commissioner of Jhang, and beyond Chah Bhareri under the district authorities of Dera Ismáil Khán. The road from Cháh Bhareri to within a mile or two of Tobha Tek Singh, some 56 miles in length, is annually laid down with sar grass. There is a considerable passenger traffic by the mail cart line, and during the cold weather months the road is thronged with strings of camels belonging to the powindáh merchants of Afghánistán passing to and from the Railway Station of Chichawatni. The two other principal lines of road are from Wazírábád to Mooltan, running along the Chenáb through the towns of Jhang, Chiniot and Shorkot; and from Jhang to Shahpur, which crosses the Chenáb north of Jhang, and goes thence to Kot Isá Sháh and along the Jhelam. A considerable amount of traffic passes between Lahore and Chiniot on the road that runs through the Bár. Another road runs up from Muzaffargarh through Rangpur, Ahmadpur, and Garh Mahárája to Athárah Hazárí, and up north through Máchhíwál to Girot and Khusháb. There is some little use made of the road from Jhang to Ghapní ard Gúgera. The other roads are purely district roads, and scarcely made use of except by residents of the district. The old road to Leiah, branching off from the Dera Ismáil Khán line at Athárah Hazárí, was of some importance when Leiah was the headquarters of a Commissionership, but is little frequented now. Besides the bridge of boats over the Chenáb at Trimmú and a culvert here and there on the main roads, there are no bridges in the district.

There are good saráis at all the principal places of the district and along the more important roads, viz., at Chiniot, Bhowana, Khiva, Jhang, Bhagri, Shorkot, Nalera, Roránwáli, Tobha Tek Singh, Bhamb, Atharah Hazari, Chah Bhareri, and at several places in the interior of the Bar. In the matter of rest-houses, not a single district in the Punjab is as well off as Jhang. There are first-class bungalows at Chiniot, Bukhári, Tobha Tek Singh, Shorkot, Ahmadpur, Chund, and Kot Isá Sháh. Besides these, there are either good houses, interior sarái rooms, or pokey little police bungalows at or within reach of every place of importance. Otherwise it would be impossible to be away from the Sadr, for Jhang, as Mr. Monckton notes, "is a region destitute of living brooks and shady groves." The table given on the next page shows the principal roads of the district together with the halting places on them, and the conveniences for travellers to be found at each. Communications on the road from Chícháwatni Railway Station to Jhang are sometimes interrupted in the rains by floods on the Rávi river along the part of the road between the River Rávi and Kamália town. Similarly, communication with Dera Ismáil Khán is rendered difficult during the rains by floods in the Chenáb at the Trimmú ferry. On each of the rivers in question there is a bridge of boats; the Rávi bridge stands the whole year round, but the Chenáb bridge is dismantled during the hot season.

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and communications.

Roads.

Chapter IV, D.

Prices, weights and measures, and communications.

Roads.

	Rout	te.	Halting place.	Distance in miles	Remarks.
			Chiniot . Bukhari .		Encamping-ground and serai, bungalow, unmetalled. Encamping-ground and rest-house, un-
	FAN.		Bhowana .	. 14	metalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow,
	700		Khiva .	13	unmetalled. Encamping-ground, sarai, and police
	ξ.		Jhang .	16	bungalow, unmetalled. Encamping-ground and dak bungalow, unmetalled.
	T Q	1	Baghri .	12	Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow, unmetalled.
	3AB.		Haveli Bahadur Shah Kaim		Rest-house, unmetalled.
	Wazirabad to Mooltan.		Shorkot	12 10	Encamping-ground, unmetalled. Encamping-ground, saiai, bungalow and
	Ρ-		Basti Islam Lalera	10 12	rest-house, unmetalled. Encamping ground, unmet.illed. Encamping-ground and police bungalow, unmetalled.
-			Jhang	-	Encamping-ground, dak bungalow, and
	Јилмо то Ѕилн- рок.		Chund Bharwani		sarai unmetalled. Encamping-ground and rest-house, un-
	TO L	$ \cdot $	Bhamb	9	metalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow.
	IANG		Kot Isa Shah	9	unmetalled. Encamping-ground and rest-house, un-
	Į.				metalled.
-	RA.	(Tobha Tek Singh	·	Encamping-ground, dak bungalowand
	Š.D.		Roranwali	10	Sarai, difficulted. Sarai, bungalow and encamping-ground.
	CHICHAWATNI TO DERA ISMAIL KHAN.	\exists	Jhang	13	unmetalled. Encamping-ground, dak bungalow and sarai, unmetalled.
	AWA	İ	Diraj Athara Hazari	11 6	Rest-house, unmetalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow,
	IICH	[]	Bhareri	13	unmetalled. Encamping-ground and dak bungalow.
	ರ			13	unmetalled.
	A.B.		Ahmadpur	,	Emcamping-ground and rest-house, un-
	AFF.		Garh Maharaja Mad Mapal	16	Police bungalow, unmetalled
	Muz H.		Tibba Capli	10	Encamping-ground and police bungalow, unmetalled.
	TO M	$ \cdot $	Athara Hazari	10	Encamping-ground, unmetalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow,
	SITAI		Machhiwal	14	unmetalled. Encamping-ground and police bungalow, unmetalled.
	Кипзиль то Михакгав- сани.	<u> </u>	Chan dna Bullo	12 12	Encamping-ground, unmetalled. Encamping-ground, unmetalled.
-	G TO		Borala Ghapni	iö	Encamping-ground, unmetalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow.
	Juang to Gungera	1	Samundri .	18	unmetalled. Encamping-ground and sarai, bungalow, unmetalled.
_		CI			

There are also minor roads, all unmetalled, from Jhang to Sháh Kot 70 miles,—Chiniot to Sháhpur 26 miles,—Chiniot to Khurianwála 24 miles,—Dijkot to Ghapni 16 miles,—Shorkot to Sarai Sidhu 5 miles,—Káim to Tobha Tek Singh 27 miles,—Shorkot to Bhareri 24 miles,—Shorkot to Sanási 25 miles,—Shorkot to Kamália 23 miles,—Lálián to Koh Kerána 8 miles,—Kerána to Barána 16 miles,—Lálián to Kálowál 15 miles,—Lálián to Kándiwál 10 miles,—Chiniot to Sháh Kot 30 miles, Shekhán to Pakka Mári 32 miles,—&c., &c., on which there are no fixed halting places.

The three dák bungalows are completely furnished and provided with servants. The police bungalows and district rest-

houses have furniture, crockery and cooking utensils, but no Chapter IV, D. servants.

There are Imperial Post Offices at Jhang Sadr, Jhang City, and measures, Chiniot, Shorkot, Ahmadpur, Athárah Hazárí, Barána, Chhatta, and communications Garh Máhárája, Kot Isá Sháh, Kot Shákir, Láliána, and Máchhiwál. Money Order Offices and Savings Banks are combined with the Post Offices at Jhang Sadár, Jhang City, Chiniot, Shorkot, Athárah Hazárí, Kot Isá Sháh, Lálián, and Máchhíwál.

There is no Railway Telegraph line in the district. The nearest Railway or Telegraph Station is Chícháwatni on the Mooltan line, 56 miles from Jhang.

Prices, weights cations.

Post offices.

Telegraph.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

Chapter V, A.

General
Administration.

Executive and
Judicial.

The Jhang district is under the control of the Commissioner of Mooltan, who is also Civil and Sessions Judge. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner and two Extra Assistant Commissioners. Each tabsíl is in charge of a Tahsíldár assisted by a Naib-Tahsíldár, a Kánúngo, and a Náib-Kánúngo. The table below gives the patwári statistics for each tahsíl:—

	of	Tansil Statistics. Number of Patwaris. Circle P.											PAY			_
Tahsil.	Number of villages.	Khasra num- bers.	Hold- ings.	Reve- nue	Patwaris.	Z the	Hi	ghe	st.	Lo	wes	t.	Av	erag	ge.	
Chiniot Jhang Shorkot	265 358 189	304,112 503,561 210,667	27,177 39,453 19,844	Rs. 97,290 1,55,199 1,12,292	35 58 41	5 8 6	Rs. 16 17 16	A. 8 12 8	0	Rs. 9 9	A. 0 3 0	0	Rs. 12 11 12	A. 1 10 1	P. 0 0	
District	812	1,018,040	86,474	3,64,790	134	19							11	4	0	

There are two Munsiffs in the district; one has jurisdiction within the Jhang and Shorkot tabsíls, and the other within the Chiniot tahsíl, and some of the villages of the Jhang tahsíl lying on the right side of the road from Jhang to Sháhpur. The statistics of civil and revenue litigation for the last five years, are given in Table No. XXXIX.

Criminal, police, and gaols.

		DIST	RIBUTION.
Class of Police.	Total strength.	St inding guards.	Protection and detection.
District (Imperial) Municipal River Ferry	1 0	44	351 65 5 9
Total	474	44	430

The police force is controlled by a District Superintendent. The strength of the force is shown in the margin. In addition to this force, 485 village watchmen are entertained and paid for by a house tax levied from villagers by lambardárs.

The statement on the opposite page gives the number of thands, outposts, and patrolling stations:—

STATIONS	OR THANAS.	OUTPOSTS OF	OUTPOSTS OR CHAUKIS.			
1st class.	2nd class,	lst class.	2nd class.	Patrolling posts.		
Bhowana Jhang Chiniot Shorkot Kadirpur	Kurianwala Ghapni	Burana Khiya Garh Maharaja Baghri Massan Bukhari	1 4 1 1 1	Burala. Roranwali. Lalera Chund. Samundri. Dijkot. Tobha Tek Singh. Rahu Khanuwans. Basti Islam. Lodhranwala. Chandna. Chah Bhareri. Maru Killa		

Chapter V, A.
General Administration.
Criminal, police,
and gaols.

There is a cattle-pound at each thànà controlled by the Deputy Commissioner through the police. The district lies within the Lahore circle, under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police at Lahore.

The district gool at head-quarters contains accommodation for 380 males and 11 female prisoners. Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table No. XLI of police inquiries, and Table No. XLII of convicts in gool for the last five years.

Cattle-lifting is the normal crime and practised in all parts of the district. Of the criminal tribes proclaimed under the Criminal Tribes Act, there are none resident in the district.

The gross revenue collections of the district for the last 14 years, so far as they are made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII; while Tables Nos. XXIX, XXXV, XXXIV, and XXXIII give further details for Land Revenue, Excise, License Tax, and Stamps respectively. Table No. XXXIIIA shows the number and situation of registration offices.

The central distilleries for the manufacture of country liquor are situated at Jhang and Shorkot. The cultivation of the poppy is allowed, at the rate of Rs. 2 per acre.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from District Funds, which are controlled by a committee consisting of 24 members selected by the Deputy Commissioner from among the leading men of the various tahsils, and of the Civil Surgeon and the 3 Tahsildárs, as ex-officio members, and Extra Assistant Commissioner as Secretary, and the Deputy Commissioner as President. Table No. XLV gives statistics for Municipal Taxation, while the Municipalities themselves are noticed in Chapter VI.

The income from Provincial properties for the last five years is shown below:—

Source of Income.	1877-78.	1878-79	1879-50.	1880-81.	1881-82.
Ferries with boat-bridges .	8,732	6,600	9,329	8,847	10,834
Ferries without boat-bridges Staging bungalows, &c. Encamping-grounds	16,913	15,595	14,424	13,937	15,269
Encamping-grounds Cattle-pounds Nazul properties	1,601	1,545 305	1.404 371	1,147 522	1,056
Total	27,848	24,048	25,528	24, 153	27,159

Revenue, Taxation, and Registration.

General Administration.

Revenue, Taxation, and Registration.

The ferries, bungalows, and encamping-grounds have already been noticed at pages 132-135, and the cattle-pounds at page 137. The total number of nazúl properties are 27 in this district, the principal of which are a Police Officer's quarters with a garden, 5 acres in extent, situate in the Sadr Station under care of the Deputy Commissioner, which was built in 1853 as quarters for the officer in command of the troops then stationed here, and a house for the Tahsildar of Jhang built for this purpose in 1853. other 25 nazúl properties there are 7 plots of land in the Jhang town of inferior quality, and the remainder 18 are of no value and situated in the interior of the district, under the care of the Deputy Commis-. sioner. In addition to these small plots forming the ordinary nazúl property of the district, by far the largest part of the district may be considered nazúl, as the grazing rukhs which are the property of Government, and the rights of grazing on which are sold by auction annually, contain 2,100,573 acres out of a total of 2,327.734 acres for the whole district. These rakhs are the exclusive property of Government, and are under the direct management of the Deputy Commissioner; they are described at page 122. Figures for other Government estates are given in Table No. XVII, and they and their proceeds are noticed in the succeeding section of this Chapter, in which the land revenue administration of the district is treated of.

Statistics of land revenue.

Table No. XXIX gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collections since 1868-69. The remaining items for 1880-81 and 1881-82 are shown below:—

Source of revenue.				1880-81.	1851-82.
			~	Rs	Rs.
Surplus warrant talabanah				520	397
Muldan i or proprietary dues -	٠			394 44	1.39
Revenue, fines and forfeitures		•		48	136
Other items .				76	2,367

Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions, and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current settlement, will be found below in the succeeding section of this Chapter.

Education.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government and Aided, High, Middle and Primary schools of the district. The High school is at Jhang; there are Middle schools for boys at Jhang, Maghiána, Chiniot, Shorkot and Ahmadpur; while the Primary schools are situated at Jhang, Maghiána, Kot Isa Sháh, Kot Shákir, Chhatta. Mári, Munda Saiyad, Machhíwál, Chund Bharwána, Sháh Jiwana, Pír Kot Sadhana, Chela, Khíva and Bagh in the Jhang tah-il; at Lalián, Langar Makhdúm, Thatti Bálá Rája, Baráná, Kalri, Rajoá, Shekhán, and Chiniot in the Chiniot tahsíl; and at Shorkot, Ahmadpur, Garh Máhárája, Hassú Balel, Havéli Bahádur Sháh, Kaim and Kúnd Sargáná in the Shorkot tahsíl. Besides

these there are eight female schools which are situated, three at Jhang, three at Maghiána, one at Kot Isá Sháh, and one at Bágh in the Jhang tahsíl The district lies within the Mooltan circle, which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Mooltan. Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the census of 1881, and the general state of education has already been described at pages 52 and 53. There are some indigenous schools in the district; among these, three schools situated at Ballo in the Jhang tahsíl, and Khákí and Mirnewála in the Shorkot tahsíl. are alone worthy of notice.

This school was at first purely vernacular, but became a District School in 1861, and the high department was added in 1877. It consists of the high department held in the new building at Adhiwál (half way between the old city of Jhang and the civil station of Maghiána), and situated about one-and-a-half miles from the main building at Jhang, where the middle and primary departments are taught. The three departments are under the superintendence of one Head-Master, and are taught by 13 other teachers in English, Vernacular, Mathematics, and Hindi. There are no lower Primary branches of the Jhang District School. The expenditure, number of pupils, and results of examinations, for the last five years, are shown in the accompanying table:—

			Expendi-	No.	Pass results of examination		
Year.			ture.	of boys.	Middle School.	Calcutta Entrance	Punjab Entrance.
1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82 1882-83	·	:	Rs. 7.601 7.720 8.164 7.717 7,249	248 270 270 263 286	5 1 12 6 18	3 2 1	9 7

Table No. XXXIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the six dispensaries of the district, which are under the general control of the Civil Surgeon, and which are now classed as follows:—

A civil hospital at Maghiána providing forty-two beds, under charge of an Assistant Surgeon.

A first-class dispensary at Chiniot, providing twenty-four beds, under charge of an Assistant Surgeon.

A second-class dispensary at Ahmadpur, providing fourteen beds, under charge of a Hospital Assistant.

A second-class dispensary at Shorkot, providing twelve beds, under charge of a Hospital Assistant.

A second-class dispensary at Kot Isá Sháh, providing six beds, under charge of a Hospital Assistant.

A third-class dispensary at Jhang, under charge of a local native doctor. This is about two miles from Maghiana where there is a civil hospital.

People freely resort to the dispensaries. There are no good hakims or vaids in the district. All the dispensaries of this district

Chapter V, A.

General Administration.

Education.

Jhang District School,

Medical.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

Medical.

are entrusted, to a great advantage to the people, with the vaccination of their own respective towns as well as of the villages lying within five miles of them. Vaccination in the interior of the district is carried on by six vaccinators, one of whom acts also as a supervisor. Vaccination in this district has become very popular, and some few families have adopted it as an obligatory household institution. The civil hospitals at Jhang and Chiniot were founded in 1859 and 1872, respectively.

Ecclessiastical.

There is a small church at Jhang, capable of seating some 36 persons. No Chaplain is posted there; but the Chaplain at Mooltan occasionally visits the station, and holds service in the church.

Head-quarters of other departments.

The Executive Engineer, Mooltan, is in charge of the principal public buildings of the district; he is subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 1st Circle, Ráwalpindi. The Post Offices are controlled by the Superintendent of Post Offices, Deraját Division, residing at Dera Ismáil Khán. The Forests, rakhs, are under the Deputy Conservator of Forests, Punjab, Gújránwála Division, whose head-quarters are at Gújránwála.

SECTION B.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

Sikh system, and early settlements.

Some details regarding the Sikh revenue administration have already been given in Chapter II, pages 36, 37, 38, while their fiscal system has been described in the section treating of tenures (pages 72-78). Before the year 1831, when the Mooltan province was entrusted to the management of Sáwan Mal, Jhang can scarcely be said to have had any fiscal history. The Siál chiefs of Jhang apparently took in kind one-quarter of the produce upon much the same lines as Sáwan Mal did. The story that there were 125,000 wells at work during the reign of Walídád Khán, and that all the assessment taken was only Re. 1 or a blanket per well, is probably a mere myth. Walídád, no doubt, did, by moderate assessment and fostering measures, give a great impetus to cultivation, but it is doubtful whether his collections were of that exceeding mildness for which they are given credit.

Sawan Mal's administration.

Of the administration of Sáwan Mal Mr. Monckton wrote :--

"After the breaking up of the Mughal empire, the southern portion of the Punjab appears to have fallen under the rule of petty Muhammadan chiefs. Ranjit Singh, on conquering the country, made over the administration to a Hindú named Sáwan Mal. He organised afresh the revenue system, and fixed the tax on the land actually under cultivation according to the nature of the crop grown. It was simply an excise on agricultural produce, levied in the form of an average tax in money or a fixed proportion in kind, according to the choice of the zaníndár. On first class crops, as tobacco, sugar, poppy, money rates were invariably charged, and no option was allowed. Fallow land and fodder crops escaped tax entirely, as also corn ate down green by cattle engaged in agriculture. Persons desirous of embarking capital in the construction of new wells or the repairs of deserted ones were encouraged by the grant of leases for periods of 20 years on a fixed cash payment of generally Rs. 12. This lease, however, only protected a

limited extent of land, usually 20 acres (20 bigahs?), and did not cover Chapter V, B. first-class crops from the special taxes to which they were held subject under all circumstances. Special indulgence to encourage the investment Land and Land of capital on agriculture was also bestowed in the form of inám taraddadana, which may be translated as 'grants in reward for cultivation; 'e.g., a man of wealth and influence would engage to sink eight new wells and found a village, on condition of receiving in rent-free tenure, one well. But as it was found that the cultivation of this well was unduly increased to the detriment of the public revenue, the jhol tenure was introduced. By this the grantee was entitled to claim exemption for no particular well, but for a rateable deduction on all his wells, and in the case we have supposed would receive a remission of one-eighth on all his land."

Sawan Mal took both in cash and kind. Collections in kind were almost invariably made by Kankút appraisement. Nominally the Government share of the produce was half the proprietor's share of the produce, the latter being almost invariably one-half. This does not mean that the Local Government never took more than one-fourth. The appraisement of the one-fourth crop was made by Government servants, and there was nothing to prevent their over-estimating the Government share of the produce until it became really half produce, or more. It was in this way that the Sikh Government never allowed any middleman between itself and the actual cultivator of the soil. Very often the only limit to public taxation was the inability of the cultivator to pay more. The following are a few instances of the cash rates paid per bigah:wheat Re. 1-12 to Rs. 2; barley Re. 1 to Rs. 2; tobacco Rs. 8; cotton Re. 1-12 to Rs. 2-12; Indian corn Re. 1 to Rs. 2; jowar Re. 1 to Rs. 2; sarshaf Rs. 2 to Rs. 5. Besides these rates there were a host of fees and cesses known as abwab, taken in addition. The following are some of the more important :- Iktàla, an extra seer, the 41st taken in the maund; wazn kashi, tikh and mukaddami, cash payments per well at each harvest; karàwa and mohassúl, the pay of the man who watched the crop in the interests of the Sarkar. Fines were also continually levied. The only persons who were safe from these exactions were persons from whom nothing could be squeezed. Liberal remissions were, however, allowed for crops that did not mature or turned out very patchy, under the name of kharaba. The revenue system of Sawan Mal was essentially fluctuating. It adapted itself to the vicissitudes of the seasons. Whether the harvest was good or bad, enough was left over to the cultivator to live upon. In itself the demand was heavy, but its elasticity prevented it from becoming oppressive. Under a good Sikh Governor the cultivator of the soil was looked upon as a Government tenant with certain rights of occupancy. So long as he went on cultivating his land and allowing himself to be annually squeezed, the State took great care of him, and was always ready to assist if he got into difficulties either through loss of cattle or with the village baniah. Ejections, except at the order of the Kárdár, were unknown, and the Kárdár seldom exercised the power. Whether a well paid revenue in cash or kind, the collection was suspended as soon as it fell out of work, and, on the other hand, new wells were at once brought on the rent roll. All the protection allowed to a new

Revenue. Sáwan Mal's admi-

nistration.

在江北 中国 所 安东西 大震震 等

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

Sáwan Mal's administration. well was a remission of $\frac{1}{8}$ th. In the case of sailàb lands it was usual to exact a nazràna payment from the applicant who wished to obtain a grant of land for purposes of cultivation. In sanctioning these grants not the least respect was paid to old proprietary rights, if such existed. The valley of the Chenáb in Sáwan Mal's time was in many parts an impenetrable jangal, and there are so many riverain villages whose foundation dates from that time, that no rights of individual property could have existed. Men of influence obtained for the payment of a small sum the exclusive right to cultivate large blocks of land, and these grants have now become villages. The State took her share of the produce as soon as the land commenced to bear crops. It is rather difficult to form any very clear idea as to the degree of the severity of the Revenue demand in Sawan Mal's time. It varied with the mood of the local Governor. Múl Ráj, who was for some time in charge of Jhang, was most tyrannical and oppressive in his exactions. The rule of the other Kárdárs was milder. The greater prevalence of hàthrakhài tenures around Jhang shows that the demand was heavier close by the head-quarters of Government than elsewhere. In the more remote parts of the district it was perhaps more difficult to enforce a heavy demand and less was taken. The worst point of the Sikh rule in the eves of the agriculturist was that the Kárdárs never hesitated to impose arbitrary fines, whenever they found that a man had contrived to save money in spite of the land revenue demand.

The Kálowál iláka under Guláb Singh.

The only portion of the Jhang district not included in the Mooltan province was the Kálowál iláka. Here Rájá Guláb Singh was generally the farmer of the revenue, though Sawan Mal held the farm for one or two years. Mr. Ouseley thus describes the Revenue Administration:—"They collected their revenue by " batài (division of the harvest when reaped and threshed), or by " kankút (appraisement of the standing crops), or by underleasing "a few villages here and there for a certain cash payment to some " person possessing a little local influence, who again made his own " arrangements for collecting his rents according to one of the above-"described modes. As the principal lessee held his lease subject "to renewal annually, of course any contracts entered into by him "were only for a similar period." The fiscal administration of Rája Guláb Singh is still execrated by the people as the acme of extortionate taxation. The instance of his rapacity that they are most fond of quoting, is his device of taxing, not the land, but the plough bullocks at the rate of Rs. 25 a yoke. The consequence was that the people abandoned their holdings and the land became desolate. But the tax-collectors showed themselves equal to the occasion, and if they found that the cultivators of a well had fled. they promptly ascertained who the kamins were, and fleeced them.

The first Summary Settlement of Mr. Cocks. The first Summary Settlement of the tract now included in the Jhang Settlement was made by Mr. Cocks in 1847-48, the ilàkàs of Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur being excepted. This was before annexation. The statement on the opposite page gives some statistics of the first Summary Settlement.

CHAP. V .- ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

Tahsils.	We	lls at work.	Cultivation.	Jama.
Chimot Thang Shorkot	!	Statistics 3.490 2.417	wanting. 75.149 37,615	Rs. 82,865 1 21,519 68,356
Total				2,72,738

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The first Summary Settlement of Mr. Cocks.

The only really trustworthy figures are those of the jamas. Mr. Ouseley says:—"The assessments were based on the Sikh returns, on which a reduction of 20 per cent, was allowed." Mr. Monekton writes:—"The jama was assessed on a reduction of from 10 to 15 per cent, on the previous average collections." "So impressed," says Mr. Monekton, "were they with the mild and "liberal views of English administration, that the great majority "cordially sided with us in the contest with Múl Ráj and the "insurgent Sikh chiefs, which occurred shortly after."

Mr. Cocks' assessment was undoubtedly, judged by the cash assessments of to-day, both severe and heavy. It was paid for two years because prices were high. Then came the Mooltan rebellion. Peace was, however, restored in a short time, and with tranquillity came an enormous fall in the value of grain. The prices of wheat were as follows, in seers per rupee:—

1844	29	1849	 25
1845	30	1850	38
1846	33	1851	 48
1847	33	1852	 63
1848	. 37	1853	 62

The assessment of no district, however fertile, could bear up against two such forces as these, the assessment being inherently severe. The inapplicability of our revenue system to the Jhang district, no doubt, had some share in rendering the payment of Mr. Cocks' assessment impossible, but it was not the chief factor, or its influence would have been felt sooner. For 1848 and 1849 the collections were made without difficulty. In 1850 a few balances remained. "But towards the close of 1851, a great cry of distress "arose throughout the district, and it was considered absolutely "necessary that a remission of the demand should be at once "effected. The distress was greatest in the Kálowál tahsíl."

The second Summary Settlement was made by Major Hamilton and Mr. Monckton in Jhang, and in the Kálowál iláka by Mr. Ouseley. The demand for the Kálowál tahsíl was first revised by Mr. Thornton, the Commissioner, at the close of 1851, and a reduction of 25 per cent. given, and again in 1853 by Mr. Ouseley. It is Mr. Ouseley's figures that are given here. The results are tabulated below:—

Tahsils.	Wells.	Cultivation.	Jama.
Chimot Jhang Shorkot	No St. 3 296 1,903	tistics 49.042 29,911	Rs 61,246 1,62,858 58,988
Total			2,23,092

The second Summary Settlement.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The Second Summary Settlement.

The reduction given amounted to 18 per cent., or roughly speaking to half a lakh out of $2\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs. The revision of the first Summary Settlement was commenced by Major Hamilton, who took up first the cases of villages that needed more immediate attention, and finished by Mr. Monckton. In Kálowál, when the first Summary Settlement had broken down utterly, the revision was effected in three days by the Commissioner, Mr. Thornton, and the demand reduced from a lakh to Rs. 7, 600. "This assessment was, humanly speaking, the means of speedily restoring an almost ruined and deserted tract of country to a flourishing condition." In 1853 Mr. Ouseley again revised the Kálowál Settlement, which resulted in a further decrease of Rs. 12,000 in the tahsíl revenue, i.e., from Rs. 75,617 to Rs. 63,738. The revised assessments were collected with ease until the Regular Settlement.

The Regular Settlement.

Jhang.

The Regular Settlement of the Jhang district was at first entrusted to Mr. Morris, but in April 1854 Mr. Monckton took charge of the Settlement, and he remained in charge until the conclusion of operations in the early part of 1857. The first business of the Regular Settlement was the determination of what land belonged to the State and what to individuals, and the demarcation of the tract belonging to individuals into villages. were apparently no disputes and no difficulties in defining the boundaries of the Government waste. The zamindars, instead of meditating encroachments on the State lands, in many instances threw up land that undoubtedly belonged to them, so fearful were they of the responsibilities that had hitherto attached to proprietorship of land. The adjustment of the village boundaries was a work of some magnitude not unaccompanied with difficulty. The state of proprietary right as existing at annexation, and the effect of this demarcation in bestowing proprietary right on the villagers in waste lands now included within their village, have already been described in Chapter III. The principles upon which the assessment circles were arranged were uniform for the whole district. The tract under assessment was everywhere a narrow strip of land lying between a river and the high lying uplands of the Bár or Thal. Cultivation was easiest and least expensive near the rivers, most laborious and requiring most capital in the uplands alongside the Bar or Thal. Consequently the riverain villages were collected into one circle, and those under the Bár and Thal into another. What villages remained situate between these two were formed into a third or intermediate circle. The names of the circles were River or "Hithár," Centre or "Wasat," and Upland or "Bar." For each of these circles the different rates of assessment shown on the opposite page were framed for the three descriptions of soils—chàhi, sailàb, and bàràni—classed according to the sources from which each obtained the moisture necessary for the growth of crops. There were no distinctions between chàhi, chàhi-sailàb, chàhi-jhalòrì, &c.

CHAP. V.—ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

	I	RIVER.	CENTRE	UPLAND.				
Tahsil.	Chahi.	Sailab. Barani.	Chahi. Sailab.	Barani. Chahi.		Sailab.	Barani.	
	Rs. A.	Rs. A. Rs. A.	Rs. A. Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	Rs. A.	
Chimot Jhang Kadirpur {Chenab Jhelam Uch	$\begin{array}{c cccc} 1 & 6 \\ 1 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1/8 - 1/6 \\ 1 & 6 \end{array}$	1 6 0 8 1 0 0 8 1 0 0 8 1 2 0 8 1 0 0 8	1 2 1 2 1 6 0 14 0 10 0 10 0 14 0 14 1 0 0 14	0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 6	$ \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 14 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 13 \end{array} $	0 14 0 10 0 13	0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8	

The financial results of Mr. Monckton's Settlement, classified tahsíl by tahsíl, according to existing arrangements, are given below:—

	Chiniot.	Jhang.	Shorkot.	Total.
Jama Incidence on cultivation,	Rs. 33,995 0-15-8	Rs. 1,13,246 1-1-2	Rs. 58,147 1-1-0	Rs. 2,05,388

The Regular Settlement of 113 villages in the Chiniot tabsil on the right bank of the Chenáb was made by Mr. Ouseley. Settlement was commenced in 1854. The first step was the demarcation of boundaries. This business was effected without trouble in the well-cultivated tracts, but was attended with great difficulties in the Bar. It is not necessary to notice the obstacles with which Mr. Ouseley had to contend in the demarcation of the boundaries of the Bár villages, as all the Bár round Kirána, that was transferred to Jhang in 1861 has become, it is not known exactly how, Government property. It was an integral portion of the Jhang district land revenue and tirni system, that all the waste lands in the Bár were the property of Government, and naturally the Jhang officials saw no reason for treating the Kirána Bár in a different manner. A great part of the tract transferred was unclaimed Government waste, and in respect of the portions claimed by individuals it was argued that no proprietary rights had as yet been conferred, and that there were no reasons why these claimants, who mostly belonged to the villages nearer the river and were mere temporary squatters in the Bár, should be regarded as having other or greater rights than their brethren in the Sándal Bár. The result was that as in the Sándal, so in the Kirána Bár, no private rights of property whatever were recognised in 1861. The inhabitants of the tract transferred were charged with tirni and allowed to graze throughout the Bár that was included within the Jhang district. Soils were classed as chàhi, sailùba, and bàrànì. Well-irrigated lands were further divided into chahi-khalis, land irrigated only by wells, and chàhi-sailàb, land irrigated by wells but also subject to inundation from the river. An estimate was then made of "what "was the minimum outturn of a bad bigah of chàhi land in the best "assessment division." The usual cesses were then deducted and one quarter of the remainder assumed to be the Government share. This share was converted into a money value and a produce rate

Chapter V. B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The Regular Settlement, Jhung.

The Regular Settlement, Kalowal.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

The Regular Settlement. Kàlowàl. per acre obtained. Thence the revenue rates for the circles were deduced. The classification of villages with regard to their facilities of irrigation was in Kálowál confined to two divisions, into Hithár and Nakka. The revenue rates are subjoined:—

	Assessment	RATE PER ACRE.											
Tahsil.	Circle.	Chahi-Sailab.		Chahi-Khalis.		Sailab.		Barani.					
Kalowal.	Hithar (lst class Nakka	Rs. 2 2 2	A. 4 0	P. 0 0	Rs. 1 1 1	A. 12 8 12	P. 0 0	Rs. 1 1	A. 8 4	P. 0 0	Rs.	··	P. 0

In actual assessment Mr. Ouseley went far below his rates. The 113 villages were assessed with a jama of Rs. 33,476, falling on cultivation at the rate of Rs. 1-2-10 per acre.

First Summary
Settlement of Garh
Maharaja and
Ahmadpur tudaks,
by Mr. Wedderburn.

It has already been explained why the ilàkàs of Garh Máhárája and Ahmadpur were not settled by Mr. Cocks. They were first summarily settled by Mr. Wedderburn in 1850. His assessment was in Garh Máhárája 21 per cent., and in Ahmadpur 16.7 per cent. lower than the collections of past years, and amounted to Rs. 30,452. In spite of the reductions given on previous collections in kind, the assessment was extremely severe. In Ahmadpur the previous collections were very heavy. The taalukà was originally held in jagir by Imám Sháh who "had the character of being "very exacting with the ràlats, and laid on a variety of cesses in "addition to the batài, which was itself heavy." When the jagir was resumed it was included in Sáwan Mal's farm, and he "was " not the man to make reductions, so all the cesses and heavy rates "were retained." Mr. Wedderburn's Settlement continued in force until 1857, when Captain Graham was deputed to revise it. Some revisions of the demand had taken place between 1850 and 1857, and the jama in the latter year of these two taalukus amounted to Rs. 30,268.

The Second Summary Settlement, by Captain Graham.

The result of the revision by Captain Graham, known as the Second Summary Settlement, was an enhancement of the *jama* to Rs. 32,460. The whole of the increase except Rs. 53 was taken in Garh Máhárája. A Settlement enhancing the demand of a previous heavy settlement could have but one end. It broke down in a year-and-a-half.

The Third Summary Settlement, by Captains Tighe and Maxwell. The Summary Settlement of Captain Graham was again revised by Captains Tighe and Maxwell. The new assessments gave a decrease of Rs. 3,485=10.7 per cent. on the jama of the Second Summary Settlement. This Third Summary Settlement worked extremely well, and when the Fourth Summary Settlement was made in 1862, the measurements of that year showed a large increase in the cultivated area and in the number of wells at work.

The Fourth Summary Settlement, by Major Dwyer. In 1861 these two taalukàs were transferred from the Muzaffargarh to the Jhang district, under instructions conveyed in the Financial Commissioner's No. 1832 of 29th April 1861. At the close of 1862 the preparation of a Record of Rights for the villages of these two taalukàs was commenced. The old assessment was also

once more revised. The assessment is generally known as that of Major Dwyer, but the Assessment Report was sent in by Major Lane in 1865. The new assessment which remained in force until the assessment lately announced, gave a further reduction of Rs. 473. Its incidence on the cultivated area fell at a little less than Re. 1 per acre. The jama was on the whole moderate, but in several villages the assessments were heavy.

The following tabular statement gives the more important statistics of the five revisions of assessment that these two taalukàs have undergone since annexation:

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Land and Land Revenue.

Summary of the Garh Mahárása and Ahmadpur assessments.

Year.	By whom made.	Wells.	Cultivation.	Jama.
1850	Mr. Wedderburn's Ditto Revised Captain Graham's Captain Maxwell's Major Dwyer's	723	14,934	30,452
1850-57		No	details.	30,268
1857		719	20,296	32,460
1859		740	20,296	28,975
1862		915	28,548	28,502

Thus, of the district as it at present exists, the assessments which were to be revised when the recent re-settlement was undertaken stood as follows:-

Summary of the assessment in force when the Revised Settlement commen-

	Mr. Monckton.	Mr. Ouseley.	Major Dwyer.	Total.
Villages Assessment	644	113	39	796
	2,05,389	33,476	28,502	2,67,367

Of the three assessments that of Mr. Ouseley was undoubtedly the most heavy, and that of Major Dwyer the lightest. Mr. Monckton's was, with a few exceptions, an exceedingly fair assessment, both in the interests of Government and the people.

The First Regular Settlement of the district has been eminently satisfactory, and the results are everything that could be Regular Settlement. wished. With the exception of some temporary remissions and revisions of assessment in a few villages in the Shorkot Kachhi, and some isolated instances of over-assessed upland villages in that and the other tahsils, there has been no occasion for correction of the work of the three Settlement Officers. The enormous improvement that had taken place in agricultural assets and resources by the time the Revised Settlement commenced is clearly set forth with due detail in Mr. Steedman's report on that Settlement. In fact, improvement seems to have set in almost immediately Mr. Monckton finished his work, and in 1857 "the agriculturists of "the Jhang district were contentedly fulfilling their engagements "with the State, and steadily pursuing their ordinary avocations, " while the adjoining district of Gugera was in a full blaze of insur-"rection, and the nomad tribes of the intervening Bár jangal were "sacking the frontier thanas. The pastoral tribes on the other "side in the Sháhpur district were showing at the same time a "warlike spirit; and had not the memory of days of license under "the Sikh rule been succeeded by better feelings among the

The results and working of the

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Revision of Settlement of 1880.

Assessment Circles.

"Muhammadan population of this district, a serious revolt in the southern provinces of the Punjab must have been added to the many lesser complications arising from the mighty struggle then in progress throughout upper Hindustán."

The Settlements described above were revised by Mr. Steedman between 1874 and 1880. His assessments are fully described in the following pages, which are taken from his Settlement Report:—

The tract under assessment is composed of the Jhelam and the Upper and Lower Chenáb valleys, hemmed in on either side by the high-lying plateaux of the Sándal and Kirána Bárs and the Thal, and a few villages on the banks of the Rávi. The primary classification that at once suggested itself was of villages on the river bank, and villages in the uplands. It was further found convenient to arrange the villages on the left bank of the Chenáb from the Gujránwála border to the Rávi, and also those on the left bank of the Jhelam, into the three divisions of River, Centre, and Utár or Bár. On the right bank of the Chenáb it was deemed neither necessary nor convenient to have two divisions of the upland villages. A set of villages, fourteen in number, lying west of the Chenab on either bank of the Halkiwah Nala, an inlet from the river, formed an exception. This tract is a natural basin between the higher lands of the River circle villages to the south, and the Utar lands on the north. The soil is flooded by the overflow of this Nála, and is so good, and its agricultural produce so much more valuable than on the upland wells, that the villages could not well be included in the Utár circle, while they were too far from the river to be classed with the river villages. In the country lying west of the Jhelam and Chenáb in the Sind Ságar Doáb, the separation of the Kachhi villages into two divisions was unnecessary. The names of the circles are given below:—

Tract.	No.	Assessment Circles.		
Between the Chenáb and Sándal Bár	1 2 3	River or Hithár. Centre or Wasat. Upland or Pír.		
Between the Chenáb and Kirána Bár {	1 2 3	River or Hithár. Halkiwáh, Upland or Utár.		
Between the Jhelam and S Kirána Bár	1 2 3	River or Hithár. Centre or Wasat, Upland or Utár.		
Between the Jhelam and Jhelam-Chenáb and Thal.	1 2	River or Hithár. Upland or Kachhí.		

Classification of soils, and revenue rates adopted. The villages having been thus arranged into circles, the second step was to fix revenue rates for each description of soil in each circle. The three main soil divisions are *chàhi* irrigated by wells, *sailàb* naturally irrigated by river floods, *barànì* dependent on rain alone. There are several sub-divisions of well-irrigated land which are given below with their vernacular names:—

Vernacular name. Cháhi-Khális Cháhi-Sailáb Cháhi-Naihri Cháhi-Jhalári

Jhalári

Irrigated by

English equivalent.

(Well alone.

Well and river flood.

Well and canal by flow.

Well assisted by a jhaldr, permanent or temporary.

Jhaldr alone.

The inundation canals of this district are only found in one tahsil and are of rough construction. Lands irrigated by canal flow have always been assessed at the same rates as sailàb lands.

Barànì or rain-lands. One assessment rate only has been used throughout the district, 8 annas an acre. The only important rain cultivation is in the northernmost corner of Chiniot, in the Nissowáná villages adjoining Sháhpur. Here Mr. Steedman assessed considerably above his rates. In other portions of the Chiniot tahsíl the rate itself was taken; but in Jhang and Shorkot he practically put no assessment on barànì cultivation. It was thrown in with the well assessment. Where the assessment was fluctuating on wells it was necessarily not assessed. The total barànì area in the district under cultivation shown in the returns is 3,480 acres.

River-flooded land—Sailàb. The assessment rates used are given below in tabular form for the rivers and tahsils:—

RATES SANCTIONED FOR SAILAB LANDS ON THE

	Chenáb.	Jhelam.	Rávi.	
Tahsíl Chiniot.	Tahsíl Jhang.	Tahsíl Shorkot.	All Tahsíls.	Tahsíl Shorkot.
Rs. A. P. 0 12 0	Rs. A. P. 0 15 0	Rs. A. P. 1 0 0	Rs. A. P. 1 0 0	Rs. A. P. 1 0 0

For an unimportant sailàb and naihri area included in villages not in the river circles lower rates given below were sanctioned in Jhang and Shorkot:—

	Jhang.	Sh	orkot.	
Centre Chenáb.	Utár Vichanh.	Kachhi.	Bár.	Centre Chenáb.
Rs. A. P. 0 12 0	Rs. A. P. 0 8 0	Rs. A. P. 0 12 0	Rs. A. P. 0 12 0	Rs. A. P. 0 13 0

The reason for reducing the rates in these circles was that the sailab lands, being more distant from the stream, were less certain of being annually flooded than land of the same description in the riverain villages.

Before attacking the rates themselves, the preliminary point, one of some magnitude, whether the sailàb lands should be assessed on a fluctuating system or not, had to be decided. Eventually a fixed assessment for the sailàb lands of the Chenáb and Jhelam, and

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Classification of soils, and revenue rates adopted.

Rain-lands assessment.

The assessment of Sailab lands.

The suitability of a system of fluctuating assessment for sailab lands,

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The suitability of a system of fluctuating assessment for sadáb lands.

a fluctuating assessment for the Rávi villages were sanctioned. On this subject Mr. Steedman writes:—

"In the case of the Jhelam villages a fixed assessment is undoubtedly the right system. They are exposed to more danger from over than under-flooding. With reference to the Chenáb, I am not so certain that my recommendations were the best possible. I mean that there are certain villages whose futures seem less roseate and promising than they did two or three years ago. Nevertheless, considering the exceedingly light rate at which it was proposed to assess the sailab lands, I think that the assessment should be fixed, not fluctuating. For the Jhelam and the lower Chenáb sailàb I have no anxiety. I think the fixed assessments will work well, with a little management on the part of the district authorities. The assessment on the Upper Chenáb in Chiniot is so exceedingly light that the occurrence of a bad harvest or a failure of flood ought not to have any serious effects. In Jhang the outlook is not so reassuring. I think a good deal might be done to ensure a flooding to villages in the river circles by opening out old channels, and assisting the people to throw up embankments to flood their lands. Suspensions of demand should also be liberally allowed. Two bad years rarely come together, and in a good year the sailab lands might pay half as much again as the assessment without difficulty. There are five villages who have applied for a fluctuating assessment, and it has been sanctioned for Bindi Máhni in Jhang, and Badh Rajbána in Shorkot. In the future I would give all other villages, upon whom a fixed assessment pressed heavily, the same system."

System adopted in assessing wells.

The assessment of well-irrigated lands was a far more difficult matter than the assessment of sailàb lands. In the Chiniot tahsíl the wells in all circles were assessed by an average rate on cultivation. The same method was observed in the assessments of the river circles of the other two tahsíls. In the Centre-Jhelam circle of tahsíl Jhang and the Centre-Chenáb circle of tahsíl Shorkot the assessments were framed partly by a well, and partly by an acreage rate. In the remaining circles of the Bár and Káchhi, in both tahsíls, where a system of fluctuating assessment on wells has been introduced, and in the Utár Vichanh and Centre-Chenáb circles of tahsíl Jhang, the assessment unit has been, not the acre, but the well.

The well assessment in river villages.

The rates used in the river circles are given below:—

Tahsíl.	Acre	Acreage rates for well lands.						Average rates on	
Talisii.	Cháhi-sailáb, &c.			Cháhi-Khális.			well rate.	Jhalári.	
	Rs.	A,	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	
Chiniot Jhang Shorkot Chenáb Jhelam	1 1 1	4 6 6 6	0 0 0	1 1 1	4 5 5 4	0	34 24 27 24	1 2 0 1 4 0	

In Chiniot the revenue rate sanctioned for the Halkiwáh circle was nominally Rs. 1-6-0, but practically the assessments were made with a very much lower rate, as the actual assessment was 10 per cent. below the rates' jama.

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The rates sanctioned and used for the assessment of upland Chapter V. B. wells are given in a tabular form below-

	D	Circles.							
Tahsil.	Detail.	Centre.	Bar.	Utar.	Kachhi.				
Chimiot { Jhang { Chenab { Jhelam } Shorkot }	Per acre Per well Per acre Per well Per acre Per well Per acre	Rs. A. P. 1 2 0 00 0 0 1 6 4 23 0 0 1 4 0 26 0 0 1 6 0	Rs. A. P. 0 14 0 24 0 0 1 0 2 17 0 0 1 1 3	Rs. A. P. 1 1 0 32 0 0 0 12 0 18 6 0	Rs. A. P 1 1 7 17 0 0 1 0 5				

Land and Land Revenue.

The upland well rates.

The difference in the conditions of agriculture on the upland The system of flucwells as compared with those near rivers has been noted, together tuating assessments with the fact that in the Bar and Kachhi circles of Jhang and Shorkot in the Bar and Kachhi a system of assessment, fluctuating with the number of wells at work at each harvest, has been introduced. The nature of this Jhang and Shorkot. fluctuating assessment and the reasons for its introduction are given in the following paragraphs:—

circles of Tahsils

"The condition of agriculture in both the Bár and the Kachhi circles is one of extreme uncertainty. Cultivation is expensive. Takàvi advances are universal. Tenants are poor and migratory. The harvests depend upon the rainfall, and bad harvests are frequent. Not very much rain is required, but it must be seasonable. Large quantities of fodder crops have to be grown, as no grass, or none to speak of except sar, is produced in the tract. Add to this that many well lands have a tendency to deteriorate after a few years' cultivation, and another and important element of uncertainty is introduced. These are the facts that first drew my attention to the need of some system of assessment more elastic than that of a fixed cash revenue, which while liberally allowing remission to impoverished villages would also recoup the Government for such losses of revenue by taxing at a light rate new wells and new cultivation.

"The system adopted is as follows: A jama for each village has been announced in the ordinary way and distributed by bachh, over the wells in cultivation. The jama assessed on each well will be paid by the proprietors thereof so long as the well continues to work. If the well falls out of work a remission will at once be given, dating from the harvest after the well ceased working. There will be no measurements of the crop area year by year. If there is a crop of any description, however poor it may be, the well owner will be liable for the full instalment of the harvest at which that crop is reaped. assessed at this Settlement subsequently falls out of work, and is afterwards again brought into cultivation, the jama assessed on the well at the original báchh will be at once reimposed. This disposes of wells assessed at Settlement. New wells will be allowed to remain revenuefree for three years, after which they will come under assessment. For old wells repaired, one year's grace will be ample. All new wells in any given village after the expiry of the period of grace will pay at a uniform well rate, fixed by the Settlement Officer and announced by him with the other jama, and generally about the lower than the average incidence per well of the announced village jama. The assessment on a new well will be remitted at once on its falling out of cultivation, and at once reimposed when again put to work."

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Revenue.

System of fluctuating assessments for river lands.

The system of fluctuating assessments on wells has just been described. In river villages there are two phases of the system. In one, the well estates in which wells are at work are given a fixed assessment, and all the area outside the well estates under fixed assessment is held to be under a fluctuating assessment. The cultivation in the portion under fluctuating assessment is measured up annually and assessed at fixed village rates. On the Ráví different rates for lands irrigated by jhalárs and for pure sailáb lands were framed, as there is a considerable amount of jhalári cultivation in the villages which is much more valuable than sailáb. sanctioned rates were Re. 1-4 for jhalári and Re. 1 sailáb. The other phase is where the whole village area is placed under a fluctuating assessment, and the cultivated area measured up year by year and assessed at one rate, that for sailáb. If there are any wells at work, a fixed sum to be paid annually in addition to the fluctuating assessment is imposed upon them, calculated to represent the difference between the irrigated and unirrigated sailab rate. For instance, there are 10 wells with an area of 200 acres of chahi cultivation. At Re. 1-4 per acre the assessment amounts to Rs. 250, but at Re. 1. the sailáb rate, the demand only amounts to Rs. 200. The difference constitutes the fixed ábiána to be levied on the wells. This ábiána is fixed, and is paid annually in addition to the demand given by the rate on the cultivation of the year. In addition to the Rávi villages and the two villages in the Zinda Sháh. Siálánwála. Halkiwáh circle of Chiniot, Míanwálí and Dádúwána. Changránwála, a few villages marginally Bindi máhni. noted, in the Hithar Chenab circle of tahsíl Jhang, have applied for a fluctuating system of assessment.

Date assessments.

There are no date assessments in Chiniot, as the palms are few and nowhere found in sufficient number to be worth assessing. The number of palms and the assessment, for the old and the new settlements are given below:—

Tahsıl.		The Recu	LAR SETT	LEMENT	of 1856.	THE REVISED SETTLEMENT OF 1880.			
Tansi	1,	Female.	Male,	Small.	Jama.	Female.	Male.	Small.	Jama.
Jhang . Shorkot	::	28,060 20,992	21,673 12,212	111 11,218	903 1,176	39,348 22,233	25,591 15,059	61,885 23,229	1,637 1,45 0
District .		49,052	33,855	11,329	2,079	62,581	40,650	85,114	3,087

The rates used in the assessment were 1 anna per female in Shorkot and in Jhang, 9 pies in the villages on the Jhelam, and 6 pies in those on the Chenáb. In Jhang there are very few trees on the left bank of the Chenáb. On the right there are some groves. Most of the assessed palms are in villages on the Jhelam. Date palms are found in most villages on the lower Chenáb. The dates of Shorkot and Mírak are the best. The outturn of fruit per tree varies considerably. A maund is the maximum. The retail price of dates also fluctuates greatly. The best Shorkot dates are worth Rs. 8 a maund, the worst Re. 1-4. The date crop is usually

sold in the green, some time before it ripens. The proprietor thus escapes all risk, but obtains only half the price the dates will fetch at retail prices if the year is a favourable one. The purchaser takes the risks, and they are many. He is also liable for certain charges, the pay of the watchman at the rate of $\frac{1}{12}$ th produce, rakháí, and the man who gathers the dates at the rate of $\frac{1}{16}$ th, churháí. The great enemy of dates arin. Early and continued rain rots them, and the whole crop is often lost. Estimating the average outturn of a palm at 16 seers, and putting the rakháí and charháí charges at $\frac{1}{8}$ th, we have 14 seers left, worth 7 annas at Re. 1-4 a maund. Half of this is $3\frac{1}{2}$ annas, the Government share. But this rate cannot be taken because of the uncertainty of the crops ripening in good condition. The same palm never bears well two years running. A good crop every alternate year is as much as can be hoped for.

The statement below gives the figures of the half net assets estimate for the three tahsils, also the same arranged in percentages in antique type:—

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Date assessments.

Half net assets estimate.

		Chiniot.	Jhang.	Shorkot.	District.
		1	1		
1 *		100	100	100	100
Gross produce	***	1 '	14,19,045	9,81,959	34,90,549
Deduct fodder		$\begin{array}{ c c c c }\hline & 12 \\ & 1,30,745 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c} 12 \\ 1.70,285 \end{array}$	$11 \\ 1,08,015$	12 $4,09,045$
		88	88	89	88
Balance		9,58,300	12,48,760	8,73,944	30,81,504
- Kamiána rate		19	.16	17	17
Kamiána		1,82,172	1,99,802	1,48,569	5,30,543
		69	72	72	71
Balance		7,76,628	10,48,958	7,25,375	25,50,961
Rate of batáí		42	.47	.49	46
		30	34	36	34
Net assets		3,26,184	1 4,93,010	3.55,434	11.74,628
Half net assets		1,63,092	2,40,505	1,77,717	5,87,314
Share of gross produce		15	17	18	17
Actual assessments		96,708	1,51,072	1,09,537	3,57,377
Share of gross produce		0.00	106	112	102
		. t	1	l	<u> </u>

The reasons why we cannot take a cash review equal either to the half net assets estimate or to 1th of the gross produce are these. In the case of wells the initial cost of construction, the expenses of maintenance, interest on takávi advances to tenants. insurance against the loss of the advance itself, losses from occasional failures of crops, have all to be considered in fixing the assessment, but cannot be accurately shown in the tabulated statement of a half net assets estimate. The share of the produce which the landlord gets varies from '29 in Chiniot to 36 in Shorkot. In Jhang it is 34. The average is about 33 or 1rd. Now, if the Government demand is fixed at 1th for the rain lands of the sub-montane districts, where there are no expenses whatever, or hardly any to the proprietor who takes $\frac{1}{2}$ batái, it is manifest that in Jhang, where the share of the product that actually reaches the landlord's hands is only 3rd, out of which much wear and tear of his capital invested in the wells, and advances to the cultivator

Why the assessments are below the produce estimate.

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Land and Land
Revenue.

Comparison between the assets and assessments at the Regular and Revised Settlements.

has to be recovered, to take half net assets will be a much heavier assessment than in districts more favourably situated. This is the reason why we cannot take more than $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the gross produce, equal to about $\frac{1}{2}$ rd of the net assets.

The district assets at last Settlement and now are compared below:—

		Areo under		Wells	Yokes.	Popula-		
	Chahi,	Sailab.	Barani,	Total.	work.	TOKES,	tion.	
Regular Settlement Revised Settlement Incusase+ } Decrease- } Percentage	Acres. 190,883 227,299 +36,416 + 19	Acres. 60,347 95,748 +38,401 + 64	Acres. 1,773 3,480 +1,707 + 96	Acres. 253,003 329,527 +76,524 + 30	8,710 11,018 +2,308 + 26	33,872 45,754 +11,882 + 35	2,50,736 3,17,266 +66,530 + 27	

The statement subjoined gives the district assessments as they stood at last Settlement and as they stand now:—

		1st Summary settlement.	2nd Summary settlement.	Regular settlement.	Demand of last year.	Present assessment.	Rate cultiva	
Chiniot Jhang Shorkot District	 •	Rs. 82,863 1,21,519 98,808 3,03,190	Rs. 61,246 1,02,858 91,448 2,55,552	Rs. 67,472 1,13,246 86,449 2,67,367	Rs. 70,997 1,22,243 91,117 2,84,357	Rs. 96,708 1,51,072 1,10,087 3,57,867	Rs. A. 0 15 1 1 1 2 1 1	P. 10 11 5

Of the present assessment of Rs. 3.57,867, Rs. 39,910 is fluctuating, viz., Chiniot Rs. 1,032, Jhang Rs. 12,882, and Shorkot Rs. 25,996. Deductions have also to be made on account of the 1 per cent. allowed to zaildars out of the Government demand, remissions granted to wells protectively leased, and on other accounts.

Instalments.

In Chiniot, with the exception of a few villages in the Halkíwáh circle, the instalments of the revenue are $\frac{2}{3}$ rd rabi, and $\frac{1}{3}$ rd kharìf. Half the rabi demand is payable on the 15th June and half on the 15th July. The whole of the kharìf instalment is paid on the 1st January. In Jhang and Shorkot the same ratio between the amounts of revenue payable at each harvest has been retained, and the rabi instalments fall due on the same dates as in Chiniot, but the kharìf demand is payable half on the 15th December and half on 15th January.

Cesses.

The cesses levied upon land revenue are shown below:—

			Rs.	Α.	Ρ.	
(1)	Local rates	@ :	8	5	4	per cent.
(2)	Road	(a)	1	0	0	,,
(3)	Education	(a),	1	0	0	,,
(4)	District Post	(A)	0	8	0	,,
(5)	Lambardars	(a)	5	0	0	,,
(6)	Patwaris	@				11

The one per cent. allowance made to the zaildars is a deduction from the revenue, and not a cess collected in addition to it.

Assignment of land revenue,

Table No. XXX shows the number of villages, parts of villages, and plots, and the area of land of which the revenue is

assigned, the amount of that revenue, the period of assignment, and the number of assignees for each tahsil as the figures stood in 1881-82.

As has already been stated, more than 60 per cent. of the total area of the district is Government waste. Over this large area rove numerous herds of camels and cattle; and from them is collected a grazing tax which is known in the Bár lands of the Punjáb as tirni. The làna, a plant from which the coarse barilla known as sajji is obtained, is annually leased out to contractors. Finally, permission is given to applicants to sink wells or cultivate drainage hollows in Government waste, and grants are made to them for that purpose. These are the three sources of the income derived from the Government Bár lands of the Jhang district. The management of this extensive property will now be described. Table No. XVII shows the area and income of Government estates; while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. The forests have already been noticed in Chapter IV, p. 122.

The following account of the tirni tax has been collected Tirni arrangements from correspondence in the district office, commencing with the year 1851, and the subject is of such importance in the Jhang district that it is given here in full. The origin of tirni is not traceable farther back than the Afghán rule. Its introduction into every part of the Jhang district was not contemporaneous. When Sayadwála* was reduced by the Sikhs, the Kharals were called upon to pay a heavy tribute. As they had little or no cultivation the tax was distributed over their cattle. At the time of Kamar Singh this revenue amounted to Rs. 50,000 and in Kharrak Singh's reign to Rs. 35,000. Diwan Sáwan Mal introduced a new system. He caused an enumeration of the cattle to be made, and taxed each head by imposing the following rates:—Female camels, Rs. 2; male camels, Re. 1; milch buffaloes, Re. 1; cows, 6 annas. The tax first fixed at Rs. 32,000 was reduced in Sambat 1903 to Rs. 25,000 and subsequently to Rs. 18,000. In Jhang no tirni was levied by the Siál chiefs. It was first imposed by Suján Rai about 1813 A. D. His rates were—camels, female, Re. 1-8; male, Re. 1; cows, 4 annas; female buffaloes, 8 annas; goats and sheep, Re. 1-4 per hundred. The tax was fixed at Rs. 11,900, and 40 camels. When Sawan Mal assumed charge of the Mooltan province, an enumeration was made, the female camel rate raised to Rs. 2, and a re-distribution of the quotas payable by the Sadr tirni-guzàrs effected. The tax was raised once, but in Sambat 1904 again fell to Rs. 10,000. At annexation the grazing rates were—

Camels, female ... Rs. A. P. Cows Rs. A. P. ... 0 4 ... 1 0 0 Female buffaloes ... 0 10 Sheep and goats, Rs. 2 per hundred.

In Shorkot sheep and goats were not taxed. In Uch the tirni had long been leased with the land revenue. In 1904 Sambat the tax in Uch proper was only Rs. 1,820. In Chiniot Chapter V, B.

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Government waste lands.

in the Jhang district, and their early history.

^{*} Sayadwala was for a few years after annexation included in the Jhang district.

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Land and Land
Revenue.

Timi arrangements in the Jhang district, and their early history.

Origin of Sadr tirniguzars. tirni was first imposed by Jassa Singh Bhangi, and at first the collections amounted to Rs. 5,000 only. The tax was increased by Sáwan Mal to Rs. 10,000. Subsequently reductions were given, and it amounted in Sambat 1903 to Rs. 3,093 only, the tirni in a few villages being included with the land reverue. In Ranjit Singh's time Shorkot belonged to the Kharals. In Kamália tirni was first levied by Ranjit Singh, and was paid in kind, 1,100 camels. Subsequently a cash assessment of Rs. 23,000 was substituted. Sáwan Mal reduced the tax to Rs. 15,000. In Sambat 1904 the tax was only Rs. 11,078. The rates in this tract were higher than elsewhere, and calves were taxed.

The origin of the Sadr tirni-quadrs was as follows. During the Afghán rule and the earlier days of the Sikh régime, the population of the district appears to have been divided into bodies owing a kind of feudal allegiance to a number of small chiefs. These chiefs paid a portion of the tirni, but the larger share fell on their followers. When Sawan Mal imposed his tirni tax; it was distributed among these chiefs, each taking the responsibility for his allotment. Actual collections were made by the chief from his adherents. Often there were two Sadr tirni-guzàrs for the body, made up of the clansmen of the chief, and other people his followers. The tax was collected irrespective of boundaries. Changes in these bodies, angi as they were called, by secessions and accessions of graziers, were constant. The cattle of the followers of any Sadr tirni-guzar were not restricted to any particular portion of the Bár. Having paid his quota of the tax, the cattle-owner could graze his cattle not only through the whole of the Jhang Bár, but even in the waste of adjoining districts. Tirni was collected from him wherever he grazed by his own Sadr tirni-guzar. If he went to another district, his name was transferred to the rolls of that district. Colonel Hamilton in 1851 thought it "impracticable to collect the tax from cattle grazing within defined limits," and "inexpedient to restrict cattle to any particular boundaries," and that "the only feasible system is that which has hitherto prevailed." Before annexation "the tax on " cows and buffaloes was only levied from owners who were strictly "cattle-feeders and not cultivators, and those of all bond fide culti-"vators were exempt. The cattle grazing in the river belàs were "taxed, unless they belonged to cultivators. This was only natural, "as no land tax was imposed on these lands." The Sadr tirni-guzàr got assistance from the local authorities. He was personally responsible for his share in the lease to the Kárdár. The grazing rates first fixed for Jhang were-Rs. A. P. Rs. A. P.

Rs. A. P.

Camels, male ... 1 8 0 Bár Buffaloes ... 0 10 0,

Female ... 1 0 0 Village buffaloes ... 0 5 0

Goats and sheep, Rs 3-2-0 per hundred.

Cows and young animals were exempted. Only cattle actually grazing in the Bár were taxed. The collections were much lower than they had been in previous years.

Changes in the tirni administration introduced by Colonel Hamilton,

There seems to have been but little change in the tirni administration during the first ten years of our rule. In 1860 Colonel Hamilton introduced a system that practically remained

in force until 1874-75. In his Circular, No. 126 of 14th June, 1860, he briefly noted the causes that rendered a change of system unavoidable. Under the Sikh rule as all waste lands were considered to be the property of Government, the tax was a capitation tax on cattle. The Regular Settlement of 1855-57 defined and demarcated village boundaries, and included in them vast tracts of waste land that had previously been de facto Government property. These lands now belong in full property to the villages, and tirni "now "can be taken only from cattle grazing in lands beyond the village "boundaries." Colonel Hamilton suggested that small rakhs situated between villages should be leased to reighbouring zamíndárs. An enumeration of cattle in the whole Division was to take place on a certain day. The rates fixed by Colonel Hamilton were—

Rs. A. P.

Camels, male ... 1 0 0

,, female 1 8 0

Goats and sheep, 6 pies.

Rs. A. P.

... 0 10 0

... 0 4 0

The following animals were free:

A.—Male camels to the 3rd year.

B.—Female do.

C.-Cows and buffaloes do.

D.—Bulls, bullocks, male buffaloes, horses, mares, ponies, mules, and asses.

Only cattle grazing in the Bár were to be taxed, but if one head of cattle of a village or herd was found grazing within the Bár, the whole cattle of the same description in the village or herd became liable to be taxed. All cattle liable to be taxed found in the Bár, or proved to have grazed there without having been entered in the lists and registers, could be charged double, triple, or quadruple rates. Villages were thus assessed yearly, nominally on the basis of a supposed enumeration of their cattle, but really in a haphazard kind of way. The villages in the cultivated portions of the district and the herdsmen and flock-masters of the Bar were arranged in circles, and each circle was placed in charge of a Sadr tirni-guzar. The Sadr tirni-guzar collected from the villages and herds in his circle. The whole of the Government waste lands were undivided, and, the tax paid, the tax-payer might graze his cattle anywhere in the district. The rules entitled him to graze free throughout the Mooltan division. A village had nominally the option of electing to be tirni-guzar, i. e., liable to tirni or If the cattle of a village, alleging itself to be non-tirniguzdr, were caught grazing in the Bár, not only were the punitive rates above mentioned levied, but the whole cattle of the village were summarily recorded as tirni-guzar, and were thenceforth charged annually with tirni. The system was one of direct management, and a large staff of Dároghás, Náib-Dároghás, camel sawars and other myrmidons was maintained. Major Hamilton's rules were sanctioned. Mr. Cust, in a memorandum on the subject, noted: "In fact it is but justice to the agriculturist that "a certain amount of taxation should fall on the pastoral tribes "who make use of the vast Government forest ranges to which "they have no title either of property or occupation."

Chapter V. B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Changes in the tirni administration introduced by Colonel Hamilton.

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Signs of change in 1869.
Introduction of the chak system.

In 1869 His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor authorised the Financial Commissioner to lease out the grazing, instead of levying the tax by enumeration, in any district in which he was satisfied as to the expediency of the change.

The change was made in 1874-75, and after much discussion and some half measures the introduction of the chak or block system was finally determined upon. It is still in force except in the portion of the district lying in the Sind Ságar Doáb. Its main features are these. The Government waste lands of the Bárs, the Thal, and the scattered rakhs in the Vichanh have been arranged and divided into chaks. The portion of the Jhang tahsíl that lies in the Vichanh, between the Jhelam and Chenab, is one chak, and the portion of the Chiniot tahsil lying on the right bank of the Chenáb, another. The remainder of the district lying along the left bank has been cut up into several chaks. The chak in each case consists of the particular block of Bár and the villages lying between it and the river which, if tirni-guzàr, are attached to the block. The chak is let out annually to a varying number of contractors called chakdars, for a fixed sum. The villages of the chak are divided into tirni-guzàr, and the ghair tirni-guzàr, tirni paying and non-tirni paying. The oretically to be tirni paying or not is optional to the villages, but practically it is not. A tirni-quzàr village is one in which the whole of the village cattle pay tirni every year, whether they graze in the Bár or not. It is taken for granted that the whole of the cattle graze in the Bár every year. The ghair tirni-guzàr villages are those who are not attached to any chak. It is assumed that the cattle of these villages never do graze, and they are therefore exempted from payment of If they are caught grazing, they become liable to penal The chakdars collect from the tirni-paying villages at the rates sanctioned. These chakdars are the old Sadr tirni-guzars of the Sikh system under another name, and are generally from year to year the same persons, the most influential zamíndárs residing in the neighbourhood of the chak. The sums for which the various chaks were leased during the first few years after the introduction of the system were based on an estimate thus calculated. The cattle of the tirni-guzàr villages were enumerated and; the income calculated. To this was added the estimated income from the cattle of outsiders grazing in the chak during the The total formed the sum, more or less modified to suit particular circumstances, for which the *chak* was let. These estimates were revised annually until a few years past. They were indicative only, not in any way binding. The chakdars are entitled to collect the authorised fees from the living cattle only, existing in the village. The collections may be above or below the estimate in the case of any given village, but the chakdar has no right to collect anything in excess of the fixed fees. The income from cattle not attached to the chak is made up of charges on cattle belonging to villages attached to other chaks, cattle belonging to other districts, and the cattle belonging to nomad tribes dwelling if possible all the year round in the Bár. The scale of fees was revised in 1875 by Mr. Tolbort, and fixed as below:—

				Rs.	A.	P. 1	1				Rs.	A.	P.
Camels {	Male			0	12	0		Cows					
								Sheep ar					
Buffaloes	Male			0	6	0	1	Oxen					
Бипалоев ј	Female			0	12	0	ĺ	Horses			 0	6	0
	Donl	teys	and n	ıule	3		•••	Rs. 0	3	0			

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Introduction of the chuk system.

To allow for the very inferior character of the pasturage, the rates for the Vichanh chak were half these. Bullocks, male buffaloes, horses, donkeys and mules of tirni-guzàr villages grazing in their own chak, are exempt. Sheep and goats, not six months old on 1st April, and other cattle not eighteen months old, are exempt for the ensuing financial year.

The tirni collections for the last 20 years are given below:—

	Rs. A. P.		1	₹s.	Α.	Р.
Camels Male Female	0 12 0	Cows	• • •	0	6	0
Camels Female	1 2 0	Sheep and goats		0	0	9
Male	0 6 0	Oxen		0	3	0
Buffaloes Male Female	0 12 0	Horses		0	6	0
Donkey	s and mules	Rs. 0 3 0				

Year.		1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Tirni Sajji Munj	::	Rs. 71,761 3,835 38	Rs. 71,761 5,546 38	Rs. 69,605 6,070, 50	Rs. 61,595 5,550 53	Rs. 64,375 6,750 102	RS. 63.791 14.710 55	Rs 78,570 7,073 300	Rs. 72,268 9,200 290	Rs. 73,894 15,887 300	16,747
Year.		1870.	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.
		Rs. 87,628	Rs. 1,27,343	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. 92,792	Rs. 79,208	Rs. 80,017	Rs. 80,193

At first, grazing fees, tirni, sajji sales, and munj kuna sales were shown separately.

Included in turni

Shortly after the commencement of the Settlement of 1880 the rakh demarcation in the ilàkas of Garh Maharaja and Ahmadpur Garh Maharaja and These two parganas until 1861 were included in the was revised. Muzaffargarh district. The rakhs were originally demarcated in a summary manner without a full knowledge of the facts and without due regard to the interests of the people, by pencil lines drawn on the maps of the Revenue Survey. In not a few instances, wells and cultivated lands were included in the rakh area, and villages were cut off from their grazing grounds by intervening appropriated jangal. The revision of the rakh boundaries was conducted on the same lines in this district as in Muzaffargarh. The result was that the Government waste land situate in the two parganàs was cut down to 32,876 acres from 54,857 acres. The rakhs in the two parganàs are, excluding that of Sadkana Mirali, now thirteen in number.

Redemarcation of Ahmadpur rakhs.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The introduction of the Dera Ismail Khan tirni system into the western portion of the district.

The release of so much waste to the zamindárs, accompanied by the partition of the Dera Ismáil Khán Thal between the zamindars and the Government, and its division into villages held in sole proprietary right by individuals and rakhs the sole property of Government, rendered a change in the tirni arrangements obtaining in this portion of the district imperative. The Dera Ismáil Khán or Sháhpur system of tirni has accordingly been introduced. The old system of levying tirni has been abolished. Instead, an assessment has been imposed on the waste lands of each village in their grazing capacity. The Government waste lands of the Thal are now leased annually to lessees who collect grazing fees at a fixed scale from the cattle that graze therein and those only. the two Thal chaks no separate camel tirni has been imposed. No grazing fee is levied from the cattle of zamindars grazing in the Ahmadpur and Garh Máhárája rakhs, but a separate camel tirni is levied from the camels resident and grazing in the ilika. right of free grazing in these 13 rakhs has been absolutely surrendered to the zamindars on account of the extreme proverty of the rakhs as grazing grounds, and to prevent the possibility of these rakhs ever being leased to any outsiders. The assessments on the village waste in the villages trans-Jhelam and Jhelam-Chenáb amount to Rs. 2.337, being Rs. 615 below the assessment given by the sanctioned rate of Re. 1-12-0 per 100 acres.

The sajji assessment.

The sajji assessment statistics are given below:

				SETTLEMEN	т от 1856.	Settlement of 1880			
				Villages.	Jamas.	Villages.	Jamas.		
Jhang				9	Rs. 99	7	Rs. 170		
Shorkot		•••		17	564	10	655		
District	• • •	•••	• • •	26	663	17	825		

The amount in Jhang is trifling. The assessments in Shorkot are much higher; in mauza Bhangú the demand on account of sajji is Rs. 300. The sajji crop depends upon a year of favourable rain-fall; especially rain is needed after the plants have been pruned. The sajji is manufactured by professional sajji-makers, to whom this business is entrusted by the lessee. They get half the produce as their wages. Some other payments are made to the watchman, and to the blacksmith who assists in the process.

Leased wells in the Government waste. The system used for their assessment,

The assessment on the leased darkhwàsti, wells and plots situate in the Government wastes of the Thal and Bárs, amounts to Rs. 6,310, more or less, on 299 wells or plots. These wells have been sunk at various times since the Regular Settlement, by persons originally Crown tenants under leases from Government. At the Settlement of 1880, following the orders passed in reference to similar Crown tenants in the Montgomery district, all lessees holding on leases granted previously to the issue of the Financial Commissioner's Book Circular VII of 10th March 1868, were recorded as full proprietors of their wells and the lands attached.

These wells are not found scattered here and there everywhere Chapter V, B. throughout the Bár and Thal tracts. They are generally located along the edge of the Bar near the village boundaries, and the Land and Land lessees are usually residents of the nearest village. Those farther away in the interior of the Bar have been constructed more with the object of watering cattle than raising crops. Besides the well lands there are a few plots of bàràni cultivation held on leases, for their assessment. The assessment of these wells and plots has been framed on principles different from those on which lands held in private proprietorship have been assessed. In the case of the latter the area under cultivation and the estimated area annually cultivated by a well have been the two bases of the calculation. In assessing these leased wells, the area of the grant without reference to the area under cultivation has been the point most considered. lands are grants from Government. When the lease is given the land is waste, and the revenue demand is naturally proportioned to the extent of the grant. Taking two grants equal in area and quality of soil, the original assessments will be equal. If at the expiry of the original leases it is found that the lands of one lease are lying waste and the well out of work, while the other well is prospering and has a large cultivated area attached, this is no reason for diminishing the tax in the one case and raising it in the other. To do so is to put a premium on laziness and to tax energy.

The assessment statistics for each tahsil are given below:—

	Wells.	Total area.	Cultur- able.	Cháhi.	Báráni.	Fallow.	Total Málguzári area.
Chiniot Jhang Shorkot	 88 156 46	5,419 7,245 2,169	2,882 4,262 1,577	1,474 2,204 388	284 12 3	548 554 128	5,188 7,032 2,096
District	 290	14,833	8,721	4,066	299	1,230	14,316

The revenue rates adopted are these:

	Tahsíl.		Tract.		Minimum per acre.	Average per well.	Maximum per well.
					Annas.	Rs.	Rs.
Chiniot	***		Sándal and Kirána Bárs	}	8	25	30
Jhang	•••	•••	Sándal Bár Vichanh Bár	,	6 8	$\begin{array}{c} 17 \\ 25 \end{array}$	20 30
Shorkot	•••	•••	Sándal Bár Thal		6 5	17 16	20 20

The resultant jamàs are subjoined:—

			Minimum.	Average.	Maximum.	Old	New.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Chiniot	•••		2,200	2,593	2,640	1,454	2,450
Jhang			2,810	2,768	3,320	2,016	2,903
Shorkot	*	•••	773	752	920	603	800
District	***		5,783	6,113	6,880	4,073	6,153

Revenue.

Leased wells in the Government waste. The system used

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Revenue.

Kàsht Bàràni.

In addition to the jamàs thus framed, the lessees of all wells have been charged one anna in the rupee as $m\dot{a}lik\dot{a}na$. From this-payment the proprietors of wells leased before 1868 are exempt. Cesses are charged as on ordinary land revenue.

Year by year a certain amount of revenue is realised from the lease of lands in the Bár for rain cultivation. The assessment rates charged are:—tobacco, Re. 1-8-0; til, cotton, wheat, tàra mìra, barley, gram, Re. 1-4-0; biòjra, mung-màsh, chìna, moth, jowàr, kharbùzà, turnips, Re. 1. Collections from 1860 to 1879 are given-below:—

	Year.		1860	1861	1862	1863	1864	1865	1866	1867	1868	1869
Collections			 401	109	2,024	4,043	647	522	698	2,419	1,154	3,160
	Year.	•	1870	1571	1872	1573	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879
Collections		•••	 2,626	1,361	0,888	4,188	3,870	3,181	2,579	1,762	8,761	4,906

Applications are made specifying the amount of land and the crop or crops that it is intended to cultivate. The Tahsíldár gives permission, and this is subsequently ratified by the Deputy Commissioner. Later on, the area under crop, or that has been sown, is measured up, and the rent is collected in accordance with the above rates from the lessee. The chief crops grown are bijra, jowar, til, moth, mung-mash, gram, and wheat. Kharif crops predominate. In favourable years splendid bajra and moth or mung crops are grown. Bùjra crops in the Kirána Bár are better than elsewhere. This Bar is supposed to be generally more favourable for the production of rain crops than the Sándal Bár. There is no doubt that the rain cultivation in the Bár has materially interfered with the prosperity of the Utár villages on both sides of the river. tenant of an Utar well is generally more of a herdsman than an agriculturist, and there is nothing he likes better than some ten acres of bàrani cultivation surrounded with good pasturage and a pool of water near. With his family and cattle he leaves the well, constructs a rough shed, and lives under it in the Bar, or as often as not has no cover except a pilù bush. The seed once sown, he has nothing to do but to trust in Providence: there is no watering or weeding to be done; and there is little that the fatalist zamindár loves better. Camels, horses, and even human beings are yoked to the plough when the early rains are peculiarly favourable; such is the anxiety to get as much seed into the ground as possible where there is a certainty of its germination.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS.

At the Census of 1881, all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all head-quarters of district and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule the following places were returned as the towns of the Jhang district:—

Chapter VI.

Towns.

General statistics of towns.

Tahsí	l .	Town.		Persons.	Males.	Females.
Jhang		Maghiána Jhang		12,574 9.055	6,569 4,964	6,005 4,091
Chiniot Shorkot	***	Chimot Shorkot	•••	10,731 $2,283$	5,297 1,190	5,434 1,093
		Ahmadpur		2,338	1,223	1,115

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns, and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Table No. XIX and its appendix and Table No. XX. The remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions, and public buildings; and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

The towns of Jhang and Maghiána are two miles apart, are situated in latitude 31° 16′ 16″ and longitude 72° 21′ 45,″ and contain a population of 21,629 souls. They are connected by two well-metalled roads, which start from the east and west ends of Maghiána, cross one another in the middle where the Upper School is situated at an equal distance from either town, and enter Jhang on the west and east, respectively.

The two towns form a single municipality. The Chenáb flows past them at a distance of about three miles to the west, but in the hot weather the Kharora branch fills and runs close past the towns, and with its avenue three miles long, and its handsome masonry bathing gháts, adds a peculiar beauty to the neighbourhood. The country round is well wooded; fine gardens abound; there are good driving roads, well shaded with trees, and passing through rich cultivation; and altogether the towns and their environs form a beautiful oasis in the howling waste around. An inundation canal leaves the Kharora branch near Jhang, passes round Maghiána, and after a course of five miles empties itself into the same branch.

Jhang and Maghiána. Description. Chapter VI.
Towns.
Jhang town.

The capital of the Siál State, with many fine and picturesque masonry buildings, Jhang was the principal of the two towns. But some years ago the civil head-quarters were shifted from a position half way between the two towns to the immediate neighbourhood of Maghiana, which has now outgrown its rival in population. The town is traversed by a single main street, running east and west, which is lined on either side with masonry shops built on a uniform plan. The streets and lanes are well paved with brick, and are well drained. The pinnacle of the Nath Sahib-ka-Mandar is a conspicuous object for miles round. The town is surrounded by a mud wall, which is in ruins. The road, which leaves Jhang on the east, is for 500 yards on its way to Maghiana lined by walls, built by Mr. Wakefield to protect it from the shifting sand through which it passes. Outside the walls of the town are the school buildings with a pretty fountain, the dispensary, and the police buildings. The wells, supplied by the Chenáb with water filtered through the intervening sand, give water of excellent quality.

Maghiána town.

Once a small village, Maghiána is now a town of some importance. It is built on no regular plan, but is traversed by several broad steets, lined with shops built of masonry, on a uniform pattern. The streets and lanes are well paved with brick, and are drained into a water channel on the west of the town, which empties itself into the Kharora branch of the Chenáb. The western side of the town is protected from flood by a high embankment, nearly a mile long. It stopped free circulation of air, and had only a narrow lane behind it. The embankment has been now cut down to the level of the lane, a height quite sufficient for protection from flood, and the whole has been paved and now forms a handsome boulevard, 50 feet broad. In the centre of the town, there is a handsome chauk with a fountain, shaded by a beautiful group of trees, which is used as a vegetable and fruit market.

There are no buildings of any importance in the town. Outside, to the north-east, is a fine masonry tank, in which is an island with a Hindu shrine, shaded by beautiful trees. The municipal garden, well planted with grafted mangoes and other fruit trees, lies round it, and on one side stands the municipal hall and station library. Outside the eastern gate are the Civil hospital and the Middle school, with a handsome fountain. Further to the east are the Tahsíl and Thána, the houses of the Civil officers, the Sessions house, Kutcherry and Treasury, the Fort, a Refuge built after the Mutiny, the Jail, and Police lines. The drinking water, drawn from wells, which get their supply well filtered by the intervening sand from the Chenáb, is excellent. The canal, mentioned above, runs through the public garden, which is thoroughly stocked with fruit trees, vegetables and flowers.

History.

The old town of Jhang, the remains of which can still be seen to the west of the present town and close to the shrine of Núr Sháh, is said to have been founded in 1462 by Mal Khán, the ninth in descent from Siál, the ancestor of the Siáls; and was washed away by the river. The word jhang signifies a wood, jhangi being in common local use for a clump of trees. The

present town was founded during the reign of Aurangzeb in 1688. by a sanydsi fakir, Lál Náth, the twelfth in descent from whom, Shamsher Náth, now dwells in the Náth-ka-Mandar, the finest building in the town. The town was besieged and taken by Ranjít Singh in 1805. The present head of the Siáls, Nawáb Muhammad Ismáil Khán, lives in the town.

The town of Maghiana was nothing but a pretty village 20 years ago, and has no history. It was founded by Megha, ancestor of the Maghiana clan of Sials, who emigrated thither from Lohábhír.

The municipality, which includes both the towns of Jhang Taxation and trade, and Maghiana, was first established in 1862. It is of the 2nd Class with the Deputy Commissioner as President, District Superintendent of Police, Civil Surgeon and Assistant Commissioner or Extra Assistant Commissioner as ex-officio members. There are 12 non-official members, who are nominated by Government on the suggestion of the Deputy Commissioner. Table No. XIV shows the income of the municipality for the last five years. It is chiefly derived from octroi levied on the value of goods brought within municipal limits; a coarse kind of cloth (khaddar) made in the district is bought up by middle-men to the yearly value of 8 or 10 lakhs and sold to the powindahs, and the octroi on this, really an export duty, contributes largely to the municipal income. Ghi, wool, khar (impure carbonate of soda and potash), and tamarisk galls are largely exported. So is maddar, bought from the powindahs. Soap also of a superior kind is manufactured and exported; leather-work, including saddlery, and jars for ghi and oil, are in much demand. Brass work, especially imitation Chubb-locks, have quite a Punjab reputation.

The site of Maghiana is very favourable, being on the edge of the high-lands, out of reach of the river floods, and upon the great lines of traffic. Here the route of the Kandahár caravans from Dera Ismáil Khán to Fírozpur and Dehli, crosses the military road from Mooltan to Wazirábád. Roads have also been constructed connecting Maghiána with Sháhpur in one direction, and Pák Pattan, vià Kamália, in another. Jhang is situated in the low-land. It has no transit, and but little indigenous trade; and now that the Government offices and establishments have been removed to Maghiána, it has ceased to be a place of any importance.

The principal institutions of Jhang and Maghiána are the two Middle schools, one near each town, the Upper school at Adhiwal, half way between the two towns, the charitable dispensary with its branch at Jhang, and the municipal hall, with its readingroom, library, and small museum. There is a sardi and dakbungalow, a small Church with a pretty garden, and the usual Court-houses, Tahsíl and Thána. There are many dharmsáls, thakurdwaras, shiwalas and masjids in both towns, where travellers put up in large numbers. There are nine katras in Maghiana and one in Jhang, where merchants stay and store their goods.

Chapter VI. Towns. History.

Institutions and public buildings.

Chapter VI, Towns.

Jhang Town.— Population and vital statistics. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875 and 1881 is shown below:—

Year of census.		Persons.	Males.	Females.	
1868		9,124 8 609	5,213	3,911	
1875 1881	::	9,055	4,964	4,091	

The details in the margin give the population of suburbs.

It would appear from information suppli-

Town or subur	Popul	lation	
10wii oi suou	1868.	1881.	
Jhang town Suburbs Civil lines	9,124	$\begin{cases} 6,966 \\ 1,196 \\ 893 \end{cases}$	

It would appear from information supplied by the Deputy Commissioner, that no fewer than 71 small scattered hamlets have been excluded from, and three hamlets and the civil lines included within, municipal limits since 1875. The constitution of the population by religion,

and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Maghiana town.— Population and vital statistics. The population as acertained at the enumerations of 1863, 1875 and 1881 is shown below:—

Limits of enumeration	Year of census	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town .	{ 18: 8 1831	11,389 12,574	6,156 6,569	5,231 6,005
Municipal limits	1868 1875 1881	10 554 13,618 12,574		

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which

	Population.		
Town or suburb.	1868.	1881.	
Maghiána town Hasnána Minor suburbs	10.525 S64 Included in the	11,462 704 408	

the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken; but the details in the margin, which give the population of suburbs, throw some light on the matter. The figures for the population within municipal limits, according to the published tables of the Census of 1868, are taken from the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the

time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death-rates per mille of population since 1868 are given at the top of the next page, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent census. The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Chiniot town.

The town of Chiniot is situated in latitude 31° 43′ 32″ and longitude 73° 0′ 59,″ and contains a population of 10,731 inhabitants. It stands under and on the slope of low rocky hills about two miles

BIRTH-RATES. DEATH-RATES. Year. Females. Persons. Persons. Males. Males. Females. 1868 13 18 12 1869 30 29 30 1870 25 26 24 16 16 17 ... 20 19 21 18 1871 18 18 ٠.. 2112 9 15 15 1872 16 23 1873 11 12 21 23 19 20 1874 36 21 15 22 19 ... 24 30 1875 45 20 32 28 28 16 12 26 $\tilde{28}$ 1876 25 30 24 24 23 1877 15 14 . - -. 36 1878 37 30 15 15 40 1879 26 14 11 27 27 28 21 1880 38 20 17 17 17 26 1881 36 18 22 20 24 ... 24 23 Average 30 17 14

Chpter VI.
Towns.

Maghiána Town. Population and
vital statistics.

from the left bank of the Chenáb, and in hot weather the heat thrown out by them is almost intolerable. The town is divided into three parts, and is picturesquely grouped on and below the hills. One part lies close under the hill, another towards the tahsíl, and the third to the west. This last, though included in the town, is always spoken of as the Thattah, and is more a separate collection of houses, round the tomb of Pir Shekh Ismail, than an integral part of the town. Most of the houses are of excellent brick-work; and the solid well-built aspect of the town is striking. conspicuous building is the Sháhi Masjid built by Nawab Sádúlla Khán Tahím, physician and minister of Sháh Jahán. There is also a khángáh sacred to the memory of Sháh Burhán, a saint revered alike by Hindús and Musalmáns. It has a good marketplace attached to it. There are some good streets which are well paved, and many of the houses are lofty and commodious, especially those belonging to the Khoja traders, who have large business dealings with Amritsar, Calcutta, Bombay and Karáchí. natural drainage is good, but the municipality is poor, and sanitary arrangements are not as good as they ought to be. drinking-water, derived from wells getting their supply from the Chenáb, is exceedingly good. The country is well wooded, and the hills to the westward, with Koh Kirána in the distance, and the Chenáb flowing through a rocky defile in the foreground, give great beauty to the place. There is a beautiful garden, well stocked with fruit trees, near the tahsil and rest-house.

Chiniot is doubtless a town of considerable antiquity; but little is known about its origin and history. It is said to have been founded by a king's daughter, Chandan, sister of a chief called Máchhí Khán, who was accustomed to hunt in man's attire. While on one of her expeditions, she was so charmed with the site—hill, river and plain—that she ordered a town to be built on the spot. From her name the town was first called Chandniot. In old deeds the name is always spelled thus. The town suffered severely from

Chiniot Town.

Towns.
Chiniot Town,

the Dúrání inroads, and from constant sieges during the last half of the 18th century, that witnessed the struggles between the Siáls, Bhangi Sirdárs and the Sukarchakia Misl, headed by Máhan Singh and his son the Máhárája; and again in 1848 from the occupation The most of Naráyan Singh; but is now rapidly recovering. prosperous days of Chiniot were during the reign of Shah Jahan, when Nawab Sadulla Khan Tahim was the governor. It was he who built the Sháhi Masjid, an exceedingly handsome edifice of hewn stone obtained from the hills near Chiniot. The pillars that support the western portion of the mosque underneath the domes are singularly chaste and elegant in design. Some repairs and restorations have been recently made that, to say the least, are in very doubtful taste, and are certainly utterly out of harmony with the character of the building. Another vestige of the Tahíms' magnificence is to be found in the remains of an elephant house. Now, the Tahíms are represented by a Deputy Inspector of Police, a couple of patwaris, and one or two other families resident at Chiniot. The decay of families that years ago were rulers in the land is in this district most remarkable. A large colony of Khojas resides here. The townspeople have an unenviable character for forgery, litigiousness, false evidence, and anonymous petitioning. Any old deed that comes out of Chiniot should be looked upon with the greatest suspicion.

The municipality was constituted in 1862, and is one of the 3rd class. The Deputy Commissioner is President, the Tahsíldár is Vice-President, and there are eight nominated members. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last five years. It is derived from octroi, levied at rates varying from Re. 1-9 to Rs. 3-2 per cent. on the value of almost all goods brought within municipal limits. Chiniot is celebrated for its wood-carving and masonry. Masons from Chiniot are said to have been employed in building the Táj Mahal. The architect of the Golden Temple at Amritsar was a Chiniot mason, and the head mason now attached to the building is another. Of late years the Khojas have begun to export large quantities of bones, horns and hides to Calcutta. Other articles of export are ghi, coarse cloth, cotton and wool. There is a small transit trade in the hands of powindah

merchants, and a little traffic with the salt-mines.

There is a good charitable dispensary, a school-house, and a large number of dharmsáls and masjids, where travellers put up. A large sarái has lately been dismantled, as it was found that no one used it. There is a good rest-house standing in a pretty garden.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875 and 1881, is shown below:—

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 1875 1881	11,477 11,999 10,731	6,106 5,297	5,371 5,434

The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex

will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death-rates per mille of population since 1868 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent census:—

Towns.
Chiniot Town.

				Вп	RTH-RATI	es	DEATH-RATES.				
	Year.		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females			
				-							
1868					•••		16	14	18		
1869				1		l 1	27	23	31		
1870				27	22	23	23	23	24		
1871				32	23	41	22	19	25		
1872	•••			29	12	17	26	23	28		
1873	•••	• • • •		30	14	17	-22	20	25		
	•••	• • • •	•••	43	20	23	25	20	30		
1874	• • •		• • • •	48	22	26	32	26	39		
1875	•••	• • •	••	39	21	19	32	29			
1876	•••	• • • •	• • • •						36		
1877	• • •	• • •	••	39	19	20	26	23	28		
1878				38	19	19	29	27	32		
1879				32	16	16	27	25	30		
1880	•••			34	16	18	25	23	27		
1881				37	19	18	24	21	26		
Avera;	ze			36	18	19	26	23	29		

The actual number of births and deaths, registered during the last five years, is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Though a town of historical renown (see Chapter II), and still the head-quarters of the tahsil, Shorkot is now little more than a village. It contains 2,283 inhabitants, and stands about four miles from the left bank of the Chenáb, underneath the lofty mound or Bhír on which the ancient town was built. It is surrounded by fine groves of date palms, the fruit of which is excellent and of various kinds. Many of the buildings are lofty, but most of them are in a state of ruin; a fine bazar with a gate at each end, and lined with shops built on a uniform plan, exists; but few of the shops are tenanted. There is a good dispensary, a school-house and garden, a rest-house with a good garden, and the tahsil and police buildings. A large hollow to the east of the town, and from which the materials of the Bhír were evidently taken, becomes a fine lake in the rains, but adds much to the unhealthiness of the town.

The Municipal Committee consists of four nominated members, the Deputy Commissioner and Tahsíldár; but is recommended for reduction. Its income is shown in Table No. XLV. The trade of the town is insignificant.

The identification of Shorkot with one of the towns of the Malli, and with the town of Po-lo-fa-to, visited by Hwen Thsang, has been already alluded to. The present town stands below a huge mound of ruins about 100 feet in height, and almost rectangular in shape, surrounded with a wall of large-sized bricks, and measures about 2,000 feet by 1,000 in size. Burnes, who visited the place, describes it as "a mound of earth, surrounded by a brick wall, and so high as to be seen for a circuit of six or eight miles." The same traveller was informed by the people that

Shorkot Town

Towns.
Shorket Town.

their town had been destroyed by some king from the westward, about 1,300 years ago. General Cunningham received the same tradition about its destruction, which he attributes to the 'White Huns,' whose date he fixes in the sixth century of our era. The foundation of the city is attributed to a fabulous Rája Shor, of whom nothing is known but the name. From the evidence of coins found upon the spot, General Cunningham infers that the town was occupied certainly as early as the Greek kings of Ariana and the Punjab, who followed at no long interval after Alexander; and that it flourished under the Indo-Scythian dynasties, down to A.D. 250, or perhaps later. But, as the Hindu coins are confined to the Brahmin Kings of Kabul and the Punjab, he concludes that for some centuries the town was either deserted or much decayed, and that it was either re-occupied or restored in the tenth century by one of these Brahmin kings.

Mr. Steedman writes:-

"To an observer possessing no special antiquarian knowledge, the mound appears to have been the citadel of the old town. The abruptness with which the mound rises from the ground, and the existence of remains of what appear to have been bastion towers at intervals round the mound, support this view. The old town must have sloped away from the fort northwards."

The name of the town is attributed to various sources; to a fabulous Rája Shor, to the saline character of the ground, to the quarrelsome character of the inhabitants, and to a fierce soldier of Islam, named Táj-ul-dín Shori. Taj-ul-din came to the Panjáb in the van of the Muhammadan invasion as a follower of Pír Ghází, who fell a martyr on the field of battle in combat with the infidels who then held Shorkot. The town was taken and derived its present name from Táj-úl-dín's surname. Pír Ghází's tomb is still to be seen close by Shorkot in a wood of aged farásh and jal trees.

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875 and 1881, is shown below:—

Year	rs of c	ensus.		Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868				3,156	1,756	1,400
1875	• • •	•••	•••	2,478	***	•••
1881	• • •	•••	•••	2,283	1,190	. 1,093

The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Ahmadpur Town.

Ahmadpur is a small town in the Shorkot tahsíl, situated about a mile from the right bank of the Chenáb, and is 55 miles from Jhang. It was founded about 200 years ago by Nusrat Siál, who named it after his grandson Ahmad. The town lies low, and is surrounded in the rainy season by large sheets of water, and the health of the inhabitants suffers in consequence. The houses are irregular, and built chiefly of sun-dried bricks. There is one $b\partial z\partial r$, which has lately been paved with brick. It has a population of 2,338

inhabitants, most of them agriculturists; but some of the Hindús are very wealthy, and trade with Bombay, Calcutta and Karáchi, especially in wheat. There is a good dispensary and a good school.

Chapter VI.

Towns.

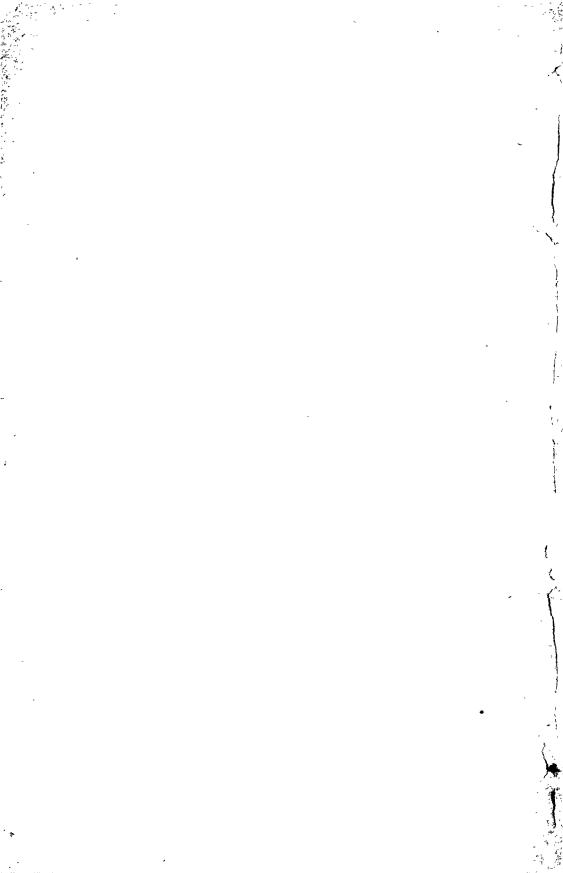
Ahmadpur Town.

The Municipal Committee consists of six nominated members, the Tahsíldár and the Deputy Commissioner. Its income is shown in Table No. XLV. It has been recommended for reduction.

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 186S, 1875 and 1881, is shown below:—

Years of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	3,436	1,827	1,609
1875 1881	2,146 2,338	1,223	 1,115

The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sexwill be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.



STATISTICAL TABLES

APPENDED TO THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

JHANG DISTRICT.

(INDEX ON REVERSE).

"ARYA PRESS," LAHORE,

STATISTICAL TABLES.

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Table No. II, showing DEVELOPMENT.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7
DETAILS,		1853-54.	1858-59.	1863-64.	1868-69.	1873-74.	1878-79.
Population					347,043		395,296
Cultivated acres					241,325	264.366	411,549
Irrigated acres					174,743	190,078	204,081
Ditto (from Government works)	\cdot						••
Assessed Land Revenue, rupees					2,84,237	2,94,590	2,97,010
Revenue from land, rupees	}				2,72,522	4,10,339	2,79,11 7
Gross revenue, rupees					4,07,885	4.80,158	4,93,888
Number of kine					140 317	258,387	124,250
" sheep and goats					292,214	259,833	221,560
,, camels					17,353	19,918	9,399
Miles of metalled roads	.]			١	648.	9	
,, unmetalled roads) O#3	954	954
" Railways						••	
Police staff				405	475	504	508
Prisoners convicted		587	662	491	1,505	1,691	860
Civil suits,—number		2,663	1,091	2,415	3,430	4,131	5,066
,, —value in rupees		78,128	50,745	1,16,712	1,24,209	1,84,229	1,80,490
Municipalities,number] .			2	4
" -income in rupces					18,947	27,764	31,840
Dispensaries,—number of					1	4	
" —patients					4,886	29,477	61,679
Schools,-number of				37	36	42	41
" —scholars				1,097	1,513	2.439	2,232

Norg.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, III, VIII, XI, XV, XXI, XLI, XLV, L, LIX, and LXI of the Administration Report.

Table No. III, showing RAINFALL.

1		2	3	4	5 1	v	7	δ	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
ı						As	SNUAI	L RA	INFAL	L IN	TENTI	HS OF	AN	INCE	ī.				
Rain-gauge station.		1806-67.	1867-08.	1868-69.	1809-70.	1870-71.	1871-72	1872-73.	1575T	1874-75	12113	1870-77.	1877-78.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1582-83.	Aver-
Jhang		72	161	145	107	54	58	100	170	75	94	76	160	124	42	44	94	146	102
Chiniot	•	27	197	126	112	99 	15%	161	248	97	117	159	141	91	Ce	74	143	204	103
Shorkot		23	70	72	183	43	46	97	146	91	56	68	136	196	55	79	133	139	96

Table No. IIIA, showing RAINFALL at head-quarters.

1	2	3	1		2	3
	Annual .	Averages.		-	Annual A	VERAGES.
Months.	No. of rainy days in each month—1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month— 1867 to 1881.	MONTHS.		No. of rainy days in each month—1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month— 1867 to 1881.
January February March April May June July August	1 3 2 1 1	3 5 12 5 5 7 32 20	October November December 1st October to 1st January 1st January to 1st April 1st April to 1st October		1 1 1 5 11 17	7 1 3 4 19 78 100

Note. -These figures are taken from Table No. XXIV of the Revenue Report, and from page 34 of the Famine Report.

Table No. IIIB, showing RAINFALL at Tahsil Stations.

1		2	3	4	5					
		AVERAGE FALL IN TENTHS OF AN INCH, FROM 1873-74 TO 1877-78.								
TARBIL STATIONS.		1st October to 1st January.	lst January to 1st April.	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.					
Chiniot		7	24	121	152					
Shorket		5	10	75	90					

Note.—These figures are taken from pages 36, 37 of the Famine Report.

Table No. V, showing the DISTRIBUTION of POPULATION.

1				2	3	4	5
				District.	Tahsil, Jhang	Tahsil. Chiniot.	Tahsil. Shorkot.
Total square miles Cultivated square miles Culturable square miles Square miles under crops (average	 2 1877 to	1881)	::	6,007* 643 3,939 474	2,365 263 1,569 204	2,272 194 1,493 132	1,220 186 877 138
Total population Urban population Rural population		 ::	 	395,296 36,981 358,315	171,713 21,629 150,084	128,241 10,731 117,510	95,84 2 4,621 90,721
Total population per square mile Rural population per square mile		• •		69 63	73 64	60 55	79 75
Cover 10,000 souls 5,000 to 10,000 1,000 to 5,000 2,000 to 3,000 1,000 to 2,000 1,000 to 2,000 Under 500 Total				2 1 3 12 52 141 550	$\begin{array}{c} 1\\1\\2\\.\\23\\52\\251\end{array}$	1 3 10 50 190	3 4 19 39 109
Commission (Towns	• •			761 4,5/5	333 2,710	254 1,088	174 797
Unoccupied houses. (Villages Villages Villages	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		:	62,429 2,974 17,810	30,613 1,523 8,594	15,416 15,416 883 3,575	16,40 0 568 5,341
Resident families f Towns (Villages				8,943 76,121	5,269 33,229	2,482 23,469	1,192 19,423

Note. -These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I and XVIII of the Census of 1881, except the cultivated, culturable and crop areas, which are taken from Tables Nos. I and XLIV of the Administration Report.

Including 150 square miles of river bed.

Table No. VI, showing MIGRATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
			MALES P OF BOTH	ER 1,000 SEXES.	DISTRIBUTION OF IMMIGRANT BY TAHSILS.			
Districts.	Immigrants.	Emigrants	Immigrants,	Emigrants.	Jhang.	Chimiot.	Shorkot.	
Lahore Gujranwala Shahpur	416 3,517 5,549 1,478 3,306 465 1,244	1,500 2,616 6,906 10,944 4,410 3,309 2,526	589 502 468 536 592 509 589	635 547 540 614 594 602 688	144 316 2,335 235 2,173 69 575	191 3,311 2,977 44 987 9	81 190 237 1,199 176 387 640	

Note. -These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. VII, showing RELIGION and SEX.

1			2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			District.						
			Persons.	Males.	Females.	Jhang.	Chiniot.	Shorkot.	Villages.
Persons Males Females		 	395,296	214,382	190,914	171,713 92,792 78,921	128,241 68,863 59,378	95,342 52,727 42,615	358,315 195,139 163,176
Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhists Zoroastrians Musalmans Christians Others and unspecifie	 	::	64,892 3,477 4 2 326,910 11	\$4,696 1,094 2 1 177,680 9	30,196 1,483 2 1 149,230 2	32,168 2,417 2 137,121 5	15,269 693 4 112,173 2	17,355 307 77,616 4	48,630 2,828 4 1 306,846 6
European & Eurasian Sunnis	Christians	 	315,002 11,835 8	9 171,323 6,323 5	2 143,679 5,512 3	5 132,602 4,519	110,761 1,410 2	71,639 5,906 6	 295,351 11,422 8

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. III, IIIA, IIIB of the Census of 1881.

Table No. VIII, showing LANGUAGES.

	1			2	3	4	5
	T = = ====				Distri	BUTION BY T	AHSILS.
	Langua	ge.		District.	Jhang.	Chiniot.	Shorkot.
Hindustani Bagri Panjabi Jatkı Pashtu Pahari			 	319 42 394,537 86 259	245 40 171,171 37 191 8	34 2 128,187	95,179 49 61
Kashmiri Sindhi Persian English	•	·· ·	• •	12 11 9 10	5 8 6	9 1	6 2 1 3

Note. -These figures are taken from Table No. LX of the Census Report for 1881.

Table No. IX, showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Serial		Тот	AL NUMBE	RS.		MALES, BY	RELIGION		Propor-
No. in Census Table No. VIIIA.	Caste or tribe.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Hindu.	Sikh.	Jain.	Musalman	tion per mille of popula- tion.
18 1 2 2 8 7 7 17 7 37 37 21 16 10 44 4 19 9 28 42 22 111 59 59 38	Total population Biloch Jat Rajput Khokhar Arain Shekh Mughal Brahman Sanyad Nau Mirasi Khatri Arora Khojah Chuhra Mochi Julaha Machhi Mallah Lohar Tarkhan Kumhar Charhoa Qassab	395,296 15.093 48.242 89,641 11,239 6,077 5,387 3,122 5,944 6,307 7,741 15,196 45,041 14,132 20,944 14,132 24,170 9,147 8,062 8,062 8,062 8,418 15,234 4,979	214,382 7,967 26,799 49,493 6,154 8,272 2,858 1,746 2,902 3,071 3,459 4,107 7,78 11,184 7,736 1,642 5,125 1,556 4,162 4,615 8,212 2,801 2,024	180,014 7,126 21,443 40,148 5,085 2,805 2,479 1,376 2,477 2,873 2,684 6,878 9,760 6,376 11,184 4,392 1,710 1,485 8,001 7,116 2,433 2,435	34,696 132 61 2,887 2 7,752 22,185 166	1,994	2	177,680 7,967 26,555 49,386 6,154 3,272 2,858 1,746 13,071 3,677 11,014 7,736 13,042 5,125 1,556 1,609 4,512 8,211 2,801 2,624	1,000 38 122 227 28 15 16 8 13 16 20 38 114 9 9 53 36 61 61 24 8 8 8 8

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1881.

Table No. IXA, showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1		2			3	4	5
Serial No. in Census Table No. VIIIA.	C	aste or tr	ribe.		Persons.	Males.	Females
6	Pathan		••		1.710	1,030	680
12	Awan				1,496	816	680
30	Sunar				1,697	902	795
35	Faqir, mi	scellaneo	us & unsp	ecified	1,618	919	699
40	Jogi				573	204	279
48	Bharai			••	1,505	829	676
70	Ulama				706	379	327

Note.-These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1881.

Table No. X, showing CIVIL CONDITION.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	D. E. m. A. E. r.	63	Sino	SLE.	Mani	RIED.	Wido	WED.
	DETAIL	. 5.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Actual figures for religions.	All religions Hındus Sikhs Jains Buddhists Musalmans Christians		 129,981 20,463 1,144 1	81,377 12,012 625 1 68,788	74,722 12,453 744 1 61,519	77,856 13,170 672 1 63,711	1,750 106 7,793	21,681 4,714 186 16,781
Distribution of every 10,000 souls of each age.	All ages 0-10 10-15 15-20 20-25 25-30 30-40 40-50 50-60 Over 60		 6,064 9,992 9,746 8,408 6,185 4,098 9,251 1,379 1,149	4,498 9,956 8,574 3,176 714 216 102 63 68 89	3,485 85 251 1,559 3,736 5,711 7,404 7,854 7,519 6,246	4,303 43 1,418 6,730 9,027 9,327 8,839 7,339 5,401 2,688	451 3 33 .79 .191 .345 .767 .1,332 .2,630	1,199 1 8 94 259 437 1,0 09 2,598 4,528 7,223

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. VI of the Census Report.

Table No. XI, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	TOTAL I	BIRTHS REG	ISTERED.	Total D	EATHS REC	ISTERED.	Тота	L DEATHS 1	FROM
YEARS.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Cholera.	Small- pox.	Fever.
1877 1878 1879 1880	6,066 6,658	 4,929 5,712	10,995 12,370	2,526 2,398 2,628 3,744 3,470	1.917 1.902 1,839 2,762 3,000	4,413 4,500 4,467- 6,506 6,470	 242 	102 367 654 104 60	2,826 2,400 2,053 3,589 3,796

Note.-These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VII, VIII, and IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XI A, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Month.		1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	Total.
January February March April May June July August September October November December		460 427 428 373 314 388 314 204 204 23 340 435 417	453 819 202 285 322 830 805 209 326 316 455 708	606 623 613 559 525 275 357 850 207 183 260 323	400 617 594 449 553 556 541 557 402 490 543 684	624 595 544 464 464 464 461 404 468 574 661 667	2,549 2,580 2,471 1,849 2,090 2,033 1,998 1,794 1,776 1,893 2,354 2,799
Total	[4,443	4,300	4,467	6,506	6,470	26,186

Note.-These figures are taken from Table No. III of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XI B, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MONTH.		1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	Total.
January		323	263	338	237	368	1,529
February	1	304	197	254	266	371	1,492
March		259	159	250	320	342	1,330
April		216	131	163	233	262	1,005
May		200	161	159	308	352	1,180
June	1	262	189	130	312	258	1,151
July	[200	144	104	256	249	953
August	1	161	112	112	290	195	870
September		159	168	104	275	256	962
October	1	203	196	85	272	336	1,092
November		252	283	153	324	406	1,448
December		257	397	201	396	401	1,652
TOTAL		2,826	2,400	2,053	3,589	3,796	14,664

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XII, showing INFIRMITIES.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Ins.	ANE.	BL	IND,	DEAF AN	DUMB.	LEP	ers.
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
All religions Hindus Sikhs Musalmans	Total (Villages	232 281 46 2 284	154 139 15 139	1,252 1,087 191 5 1,056	1,305 1,120 189 1 1,115	336 305 51 3 282	191 170 24 167	37 34 7 1 29	14 12 2

Note. - These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XIV to XVII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIII, showing EDUCATION.

1	2	3	4	, 5	1	2	3	4	5
	Ма	LES.	Fem	ALES.		Mai	es.	FEMA	ALES.
	Under instruction.	Can road	Under m- struction.	Can read and write.		Under in-	Can road and write.	Under instruction.	Can read and write.
All religions { Total Villages Sikhs Jains Buddhists	3,651 2,236 2,167 109	14,386 10,579 11,616 429	127 68 32 3	118 84 35 4	Christians Tahsil Jhang ,, Chiniot	 1,375 2,060 750 841	2,332 8 7,300 3,173 3,913	92 78 17 32	77 1 53 34 31

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIV, showing detail of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

1	2		3	1	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		_	C	LT	IVATED.			Unculti	VATED.				ated blo pro-
	By Go ernme works	v.	By pi vate : divid	1111-	Unirrigated.	Total cul- tivated.	Graz- ing lands.	Cultur- able.	Un- cultur- able.	Total unculti- vated.	Total area assessed.	Gross assess- ment.	Unappropria cultural waste, the perty of Go
1868-69 1873-74 1878-79 Tahsil details for 1878-79—			74,7 30 0 354,0	7	66,582 74,288 267,468	264,366	1,504,481 1,505,672 1,520,383	961,490	918,023	3,409,542 3,385,185 3,237,998	3,649,551		2,308,480 2.308,480 2,308,480
Tahail Jhang Chiniot Shorkot			\$9,0° 64,76 59,3°) }	78,796 59,261 69,411	167,834 123,970 119,745	682,700 590,310 247,373	365,469	382,446 221,364 112,770	1,177,143	1,555,166 1,301,113 793,268	127,823 74,515 94,672	1,026,515 924,230 357,735

Norz.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Administration Report, except the last column, which is taken from Table No. I of the same Report.

Table No. XV, showing TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

	g1	8	4	ą	9	1-	20	5	10	= ==	13	13	7	15	16	11
		WHOLE	DISTRICE.	2 5		TAILS	Тапки, Јилка,	YM.		TAIL IL	CHINIOT.	tor.	H	TAIISIL	SHORKOT	KOT.
NATURE OF TENURE.	.zatel (3 4) (72	Zogalitz i v oZ	rostofoolfto 2Z Arabledars (,	ni təre ezoti zətm	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	Zo, of holders er sharebolders	Gross area in	Zo of estates.	No of villages.	Xo. of l · lders or shareholders.	ni sərs arend sərəs	Zo of estates.	Zo, of villages,	Zo of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.
A.—Estries not being the connectine, and paying in composition of the connection of	==	::	Ė	15,135	œ	œ	œ	8,088	72	e	c.	1,708	51	21	21	4,439
Etf	32	3.2	279 200	50, 292 23,101	27	21	÷.	11,949	22		80 502	12,419 23,101		ω.	150	5,924
D -Blaga gagara. In which proceedings the measure of right read I find. E-Morel or angles. I marely the lands are it 19 party to severally and first periodics. I gath in common, the measures of it is in common or blagarance of the source of the execution.	## FE	<u> </u>	1,010	400,559 805,805	955	-09 5 5 5 1 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	7.0	125,601 208,709		1. 0 3.998	860, 660,	110,704 5.29,840	148	45.2	5,570	169,951 240,126
F.—Specters of Constraint and retirner and real percents closs, and peacing the real percent direct softeness and R to a real percent direct softeness and R to a real percent and the first direct softeness. But not the real contract of Government Waste. H.—Lev 18	34	01 <u>71</u>	1 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3,880 278,831	23 85	¢1 35	202	3,850 191,315	. 3	! : ⁹⁸	9,5	: 10116	108	108	. 16	40,835
LGottinucal vert, year ted or vadsagned	=	:		2,101,583				820,079	:			11 -, 43	=			:84,600
Torus	1,914 1,765	7,"05,	29,119	20,110 3,6.65,606 685 685 7,619 1,403,851	685	1505	619,	1,403,851	307 307		814	8,814 1,395,817	્યું	311	311 12,686	845,035
Nows, —There figures are taken from Jable No. XXXIII of the Revenue Report for 1878-79	kon fro	dr'I m	lo No.	XXX111 of	the E	cven	uc Rej	out for 18	87.8-78							

Table No. XVI, showing TENURES not held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

1	63	3	4	5	9	1-	œ	6
	DISTRIC	DISTRICT JHANG.	Тлияп	Таняп. Лиава,	TAHSIL	TARSIL CHINIOT.	TAHSIL 9	Tahsil Shorkot.
NATURE OF TENURE.	to .oZ .z _d aiblod	Acres of	Zo. of holdings.	Arres of	No. of Polydings.	Jeres of	Yo. of londings.	Acres of held.
ATENANTS WITH RIGHT OF OCCUPANCY.					-			
(a) Paying a stated (1) Paying I produce and nears	196	32,105	ś.	710,017	167	11,014	99	10,074
-	182	13,508	8	4,612	- 00	4, 102	09	4,494
If Problems $\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	514	3,809	012	1,233	133	1,216	171	1,310
(c) Paying a fixed quantity of grean for their hoblings, with or without a further cash contribution	21	125		¥.	·s	-1 1-	;	:
Total paying rout in knad	976	119,577	148	16,933	.0::	36,706	29.7	15,878
GRAND TOTAL of Tonants with rights of occupancy	970	778,03-	15	16,993	308	16,706	- tag	15,878
C —TENANTSAT-WILL.								
I Pignig in cash	či	1,558	108	203	127	1,029	;	:
II Proment in { (a) } produce and more	25,560	520,310	12,200	216,491	5,987	151,234	7,935	152,785
And. (b) loss than produce	1,600	92,205	813	23°E3	693	48,301	06	6,412
GRAYD TOTAL OF TENIRES	28,311	000,600	13,551	201,655	7,118	197,300	7,612	174,675
Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXXIV of the Revenue Report.	of the Re	venue Rep	ort.					

Note, -These figures are taken from Table No. XXXIV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XVII, showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

1	2	3	4	5	G	7	8	9
	·		Acres les cultivation		Re	emaining a	cres.	yearly 1877-78
	No, of estate	Total aeres.	Cultivated	Unculti- vated.	Under Forest De- partment.	Under other Depart- ments.	Under Deputy Commis- sioner.	Average y income, 18 to 1881-62.
Whole District Tabsil Jhang ,, Chunot ,, Shorket	33 13 19 1	2,327,734 1,020,526 917,713 389,495	9,157 2,171 6,608 378	14,784 5,999 3,160 5,625	87,450 87,450		2,216,343 1,012,356 820,495 383,492	84,233

Note, +These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Revenue Report of 1881-82.

Table No. XIX, showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

Purpose for which acture	ι, Δ	res redinted	Compensation paid, In tupe 4	leduction of reve- nue, in rupees.
Roads Canals State Rulways		છ	4,117	121
torareteed Rulyays Miscellaneous		164	5,216	153
Total		883	, 9,383	274

Note -These figures and taken from Table No. XI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XX, showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1	2	.3	; ;	5	6	7	> '	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
YEARS.	Total	Rice	Wheat,	J war.	Bayra.	Makal,	Jau.	Gram.	Moth.	Poppy.	Tobacco.	Catton.	Indigo.	Sugareme.	Yegetables.
1873-74 1871-75 1875-76 1875-77 1877-78 1877-78 1877-80 1880-51 1881-82	261, 386 ; 25, 2071 27, 25, 13 12, 25, 25, 277, 25, 15 237, 25, 15 1, 27, 315 1, 27, 45 1, 22, 788	553 682 707 127 160 101 170 141 170	153 982 149 852 145 180 16(2) 0 1 + 700 14 (977 17 (987) 172,700		2.775 8.270 2.45 8.20 2.41 1.20 1.817 (2.118	2.19) 1 mil 1.73° 2 mil 1, mil 2. 45 2 mil 2. 45 2. 24 2. 721	7 00 0 8 30 0 7 5 0 0 6 0 0 0 4 0 0 6 0 1 6 0 1 6 0 1 6 0 1 7 0 0 0 1 0 0	4 593 1 203 5,102 12 023 15,105 5,541 14 158 14,717 13 298	2,509 102 700 707 407 440	26 27 27 23 12 18	1.133 1.628 1.173 1.249 1.310 996 1.001	16,97 16,529 15,94 16,83 17,67 24,710 28,29 28,48 29,78	5 1 2 6 8 8 1 1 2 6 8 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2,019 250 260 289 289 299 209 223	23,70% 36,052 25,759 25,203 24,312 20,351 17,995 18,510 17,322
NAME OF TABSII.			т.	AH~IU A'	VERVOE	3 FOR 1	HE FIVE	YEARS,	rnort 1	377-78	то 188	s1-82.			
Jhang . Church . Shorkot .	1.0 °71 \$4 mit \$8 014	44 11	70 102 4- 717 47,119	10.171 (0.87) (0.560)	122 1426 148	2 278 2 278	1,044 2,472 1,522	4,1) 4 2 48 0,420	255 255 17	6 7 3	415 14 100	10.17 7 31 5, 30	2 3 5	87 156 7	3,576 9,280 6,844
Total	30	I	101,345	29,557	1,0 6	, 2, 2 (3	5 × 14	12, 02	67.5	16	1 589	25,79	0.7	250	19,700

Table No. XXI, showing RENT RATES and AVERAGE YIELD.

Nature of crop. States for the Voltage of the V			1			2		3
Rice		Nature	of crop.		suited i	for the va is at stoo	בייטויי	Average produce
Cotton			(Milli ma Me mam		11	8	0	
Cpaim (Yes out 1) (0) <) In an har (North and a		14 (5 ¦	4 .	} 229
Tolacco	-		* r Physical	ĺ	÷0 .	1,		· ·
Wheat	*		y Maria na	1	18	5	€ 4	•
Inferior Irrigated	Wheat		(Mania na (Mania na (Maxiatan	- !	14 11 10	0 5 10	0 4 5	725
Oil seeds		1 -	(Mannana (Mannana (Mannana (Mannana		ก็ 3 : 5 :	0 10	4 0 8	470
Fibres Irrigated Maximum Minimum Maximum Maximum Maximum Maximum Maximum Maximum Minimum Minim	Oil seeds .		Maximuri Minimum Maximum	-	7	6 8	0 ! 0 ! 8))
Barley Bajia Jawar Voge ables	Fibres .	_'	Minimum Maximum	-		1	-	· · ·
Jawar Veg e tables	Barley		!			,		
Ica	Jawar					1	1	857

Nore.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLVI of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXII, showing NUMBER of STOCK.

			_		2	3	4	5	6	7
		Kind of s	eto, ik		WHOLE	DISTRICT I	OR THE	Tansils fo	ORTHE VE	AR 1878-79
		111.10.01	1100 k ,		1868-69.	1573-74,	1878-79.	Jhang,	Chiniot.	Shorkot.
Cows and h	oullocks		••		140,317	258,337	124,250	53,250	35,540	35,460
Horses				 	2,091	1,623	1,752	750	500	502
Ponies		•			487	517	236	100	75	61
Donkeys	• •				24	4,680	3,207	1,442	942	913
Sheep and	goats			 ,	292,814	279,833	221,560	91,959		i
Pigs						i			1	
Camels	••				17,359	19,915	6.389	4.152	2,755	2 452
Carts	••	• •	• •		6	2	2		;	i ,,
Ploughs	• •				\$7.565 <u>,</u>	55 2 14	41 731	17.553	 	11,926
Loats					,	61	20	24	17	18

Nore.-These figures are taken from Table No. XLV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
or		Males	, αβο τ 15 αξ τ'ές.	peres	1,41.		Mo/es	where 15 or day.	year s
Number.	Nature of occupations.	Fown-	Vil- liges.	Total.	Num	Nature of occupations.	Towns.	Vil- lages,	Total.
7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	Total population Occupation specified Agricultural, whether simple or combined. Civil Administration Army Religion Barbers Other professions Monoy-lenders general fri- dor, pedans are Deulers in grain at from Cornstantias parchers, or Cornstantias parchers, or Cornstantias parchers, or Acc. Currers and boutners Lundowners Tenants Jonneadinystors	10.502	13.5.24 57.20 1.103 1.021 1.021 1.024	117,426 77,841 1,819 1,122 1,122 2,92 118 2,679 118 2,679 118	150m2 850 850 50	A creational laboraris Pastorial Cooks and other servints Water-e-crites sweepers and I scarcing res Workers in reed, core, leaves, Strick C. Workers ricketter Bootstrate, res Workers in wood and pushin recording to the core porters Workers and dealers in gold and survey. Workers in not Cancel I doon is Reggios Lagies and the like	17 75 2.6 70 24 177 46 85 4 4 62 1 123 123 171 171 74 644 644 927	1.138 7,429 881 384 496 2,539 10 0,593 1,578 2,408 0,78 1,578 2,408 0,78 1,578 1,578	1,155 7,e04 1,117 454 520 2,516 65 3,478 7 104 11,031 2,107 2,653 849 778 4,463

Nois.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII A of the Cens is Report of 1881.

Table No. XXIV, showing MANUFACTURES.

1	2		4	. 5	6 ;	7	,	9	10	11
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fab- ries.	Paper	Wood.	Iron.	Brass and corper.	311/19	Dyeing and manufactur- ing of dyes.
Number of units and Lings factories Number of private losins or small works. Number of workmen (Male		8,14]	1 . 2	 5	1.7 %	46)' 23 	89	235
in large works. (I enable Number of workmen in small works or independent artisms.		9,600	, ,	14 2	64	2,03	: 	s) 11 56	122	520
Value of plant in Largo works Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupeos.		1+,19,20 1	o, 1 oc	79 + 10	5 152 1	5.11 (3)	1 7 1,65 0′	0 20,70	48,000	1,42,100
	1 1	2 .	1;	11	1 3	15	I+-	17	18	19
	 Lest 	1!.		r log co	٠	1	t 12-	old sil- tet, and twelvery.	manufac	Total.
Number of this and large factors Sumber of private large factors works.		J*2	1 :61,	.5	5 1		1	470	i,496	16,178
Number of workmen CM de in for geworks the cide Number of workm in the said dworks or independent to he as		.716 -	2,753	121	.	;	3	 856	 1,50a	22,228
Value of plant in 10 to cooks Estimated annual outstand of all works in rupees.	17.1-	2007 5	7 îŋ	75,000	;) 		_08	11.65,600	2,83,450	57,88, 003

Table No. XXV, showing RIVER TRAFFIC.

1		2		3			4	5	6
•	TR	ADE.					Avrage di Vagage	wation of in deps.	
From		Тэ	PRINCIPAL M	1erchane	NISE CARRYED.		Summer, or floods.	Winter or low water.	Dis- tance in miles.
Aknur		Mithankot .	Grain of all kinds	-		ghi,	20	00	450
Wazirabad	•	Jhang	Wheat, gur, ghi, kupas, homs, hale			10	15	120	
Ramnagar		Do.	Ditto	ditto	ditto		8	12	100
Pindi Bhattian		Do.	Ditto	6	11	70			
Wazirabad		Multan	Ditto	ditto	•	20	30	230	
Ramnagar		Do	P.tto	ditto		18	25	210	
Pindi Bhattian		Do	Ditto	14	20	180			
Wazirabad		Mithanket	D.tto	25	40	850			
Ramnagar		Do.	D.tto	a.tto	disto		55	36	3.30.
Pindi Bhattian		Do	Pitto	ditto	ditto		18	50	300.
Multan		Wazirabad	Tron, ceceanuts, dat	es, black j	repper, mung,	sajji	50	45	230
Do.		Ramnagar	Ditto	ditto	ditto		24	40	210.
Do.		Pindi Bhattian .	Putto	ditto	ditto		21	35	180- •
Mithankot		Wazirabad .	Ditto	ditto	disto	-	50	co	350∙
Do.		Ramnagar	Ditto	ditto	ditto		45	52	53 0
Do.		Pindi Bhattian	Ditto	ditto	ditto	-	40	45	300
Jhelam		Multan .	Grain and oil-seeds				20	95	250
Do.		Sukkur .	Ditto		•		45	60	50 0 ·
Do.		Kotri	ditto			,	60	90	750

6

Table No. XXVI, showing RETAIL PRICES.

16		Salt (Lahori).	Ch.	12 2	10 2	11	6	6	13	10 2	10 1	9 15	9 11	10 10	10 8	10 8	10 12	70 70 70	10 12	10 12		11 12		
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3		Barley.	ਰ 	ا ا	40	; ;	<u>୍</u>		F - 31			15	E		:		:			:	:	:	:	_
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٦ .		YF VIL.		1461-62	1562-65	1999-04	1×64-05	1365.66	1800-07	1557-65	158-69	1809-70	15.05.1	1871-72	1873-73	1873-74	3574.75	1875 76 .	77 5781	87-7781	67-87-1	1879-80	1 580-81	

Nore.—The figures for the first ton years are taken from a statement published by Government (Punjab Government No. 209 S. of 19th August 1872), and represent the avenage prices for the 12 months of each year. The figures for the last ten years are taken from Table No. XLVII of the Administration Report, and represent prices as they stood on the 1st January of each year.

Table No. XXVII, showing PRICE of LABOUR.

1	2 3	4 5	6 7	8 9	10 11	12 13
	WAGES OF LABO	OUR PER DAY.	Caris per daa.	CAMELS PER DAY	DONKIYS PER SCORE PLR DAY.	BOATS PER DAY.
YEAR.	Skilled.			Highest Lowest	Highest Lowest	Highest Lowest
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P. Rs. A. P.		Rs.A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.A.P.
1868-60 1873-74 1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82	0 8 0 0 6 0, 0 8 0 0 6 0, 0 8 0 0 6 0, 0 8 0 0 6 0	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 12 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 12 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} $	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Nore .- The se figures are taken from Table No. XLVIII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXVIII, showing REVENUE COLLECTED.

		2	, 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Fixed	Fluctuit- ing and Miscel-	Tribute.	Local	Exc	I >1:,	Stamps.	Total Collec-
YE	AR.	Land Revenue.	lancous Lond Resente.	Ilibute.	rates	Spirits.	Drugs.	stamps.	tions.
1868-60 1869-70 1870-71 1871-72 1872-73 1873-74 1874-75 1876-77 1877-78 1878-79 1879-80 1880-91 1881-82		2,72,522 2,71,877 2,69,650 2,77,286 2,77,286 2,77,286 2,73,86 2,73,86 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87 2,73,87	1,01,088 97,210 1,0 +22		15 448 18,428 27 075 25,541 24,61 24,61 24,428 61 05 24 57 44 467 64 874	1,843 9 255 0,182 1 0,000 2 781 2 045 5 210 3 145 8 227 1 045 2 004 2 501 5 244 1 1 1 0	2/1.5 2/407 2/400 2/100 2/100 2/100 2/100 2/100 3/505 4/271	57, 76 32, 240 22, 120 27, 177 37, 544 37, 900 58, 571 41, 20 41, 31 40, 86 47, 944 56, 61	4.05,342 4.11,118 4,17,029 4,08,474 4.76,406 4,75,718 4,72,215 4,18,811 4.50,859 4,50,350 4,65,128 4,67,940 5,25,710 5,41,566

Nore.—These figures are titen from Table N · XLIV of the R velocite Robots. The following revenue is excluded:— "Canal, Forests, Justinus in I Sat, Assessed Laxis, Fees, Cosses."

Table No. XXIX, showing REVENUE DERIVED from LAND.

1	2	3	4 5	- 6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	(de-	miscel. Vende	Fatter	CATING	Revent	E.	Мі	SCELLAN	cous R	EVENU	С.
TEAR.	Fixed land revenue (de- mand).	The thating and miscel line out land to vende (collections).	Revenue of altuval hands. Rovenue of waste lands breught under as a senion	Water advantage revenue.	Fluctu ding assess: ment of river Lands.	Total fluctuating land revenue.	By chumera- tion of cattle,	By graving 5. larvers.	Sale of wood from rakhs and forests	Sajji.	Fotal miscellaneous land revenue,
District Figures. Total of 5 years— 1868-69 to 1872-73	13,74 +37	5,86,90	28 552 19 276			40,405	0.43.984	77,25,	36,964	62.30	5,40,408
Total of 5 years— 1875-74 to 1877-78 . 1875-79 . 1870-80 .	14 4° 718 2 57 517 2,56, 38	5, \$9,057 1, 60 946 1, 60 946	31,928 18 % 2 946 8,62 1,996 5 187			51,152 11,640 9,654	96,437	0,41,014 62,501 69,502	35.794 7,134 6,364	7,910 54 54	4,97,905 89,506 86,671
1880-81 . 1881-82 Tahsil Totals for 5 years— 1877-78 to 1881-82.	2 ×1,695 3,14,775	1,62, 192 1,24,553			2, ,42 3,407	87 02 s 45,515			5 762 6,069		
Tahsil Jhang	6 20,175 5,85 227 4,56,257	, 2 48, 103 1 27, 177 1,04,870	2 0.0 24 4 6		1,244 696 5,80 <i>3</i>	55,126 55,402 55,104	,	1 14,072 1,75 - 41 44,945		6	1,93,269 1,71,775 51,706

Note. - These faures are taken from Tables Nos. I and III of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXX, showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE.

1		2	3	4	.]	5	6		7	8		9	İ	10	. 1	1
			· ,	Тота	L AREA	AND I	REVENU.	E AS	signed.					PERI	OD O	
TAHSIL.		W hole	Village		ictional j of Villag			Plot	8.		Tota	al.	-	In per	petui	ty.
		Area.	Reven	ne. Are	a. Rev	enue.	Area.	R	evenue.	Are	a. I	Revenu	e.	Area.	Reve	enue.
Jhang		8,129	2,1	56 8,	171	2,074	2,433	- -	3,427	19,0	33	7,65	7	7,524		2,132
Chiniot					376	384	2,311		3,132	2,6	87	3,57	76	931		694
Sherket .		1,181	3	97 6,5	777	521	1,003		1,741	8,4	61	2,68	59	6,522		620
Total District		9,310	2,5	53 15,1	124	2,979	5,747		8,360	30,1	81	13,89	92	14,977	:	3,446
		12	13	14	15	16	1	7	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	Period of Assignment,—Concluded, N						NUME	ER C	or Assi	GNEE	3.					
TAHSIL.		For one	e lije.		re lices	nane	ng maco se of Est shment.	ab-	Pend order Govern	13 OF			os than	nance.		
TAHSIL.		Area.	Revenue.	Area.	Revenue.	Area.	Rawmine	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Area.	Revenue.	In perpetuity.	For one life.	For more lives one.	During maintenance.	Pending orders.	Total
Jhang		7,280	3,564	856	235	2,33	37 1,	172	1,036	554	101	144	3	17	7	27:
Chiniot .	••	1,244	2,370			51	12	512			39	35		21		9.
Shorkot		511	1,457			2-	17	185	1,181	397	28	53		22	1	10
To al District		9,035	7,391	856	235	3,00	96 1,	869	2,217	951	168	232	3	60	8	47

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII of the Revenue Report for 1881-82.

Table No. XXXI, showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

	,			land recenue ipees,	Reductions of fixed demand	7.1.
	YEAR.		Fixed revenue.	Fluctuating and miscel- laneous revenue.	on account of bad seasons, deterioration, &c., in rupees.	Takavi advances in rupees.
1868-69 1869-70 1870-71 1871-72 1872-73 1873-74 1874-75 1876-76 1876-77 187:-78 1879-80		::	1,704 11,43 3,577 3,526 4,756 5,402 3,955 6,811 6,512 8,907 7,570 15,339	283 293 150 906 1,352 6,159	177 71 75 249 625 73 93 106 131 833	4,230 835 1,480 6,950 9,005 5,775 2,514 944
1880 71 1881-82		-:-	3,580	4,734	330 21	200

Norg. -These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, III, and XVI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXXII, showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
•			SALES	of Lan	D.		Mort	GAGES OF	LAND.
YEAR.	A	gricultur	ists.	Non	-Agricult	urists.	A	gricultur	ists.
	No. of cases.	Are a of land in acres.	Purchase money.	No, of cases.	Area of land in acres.	Purchase money.	No. of cases.	Area of land in acres.	Mortgage money.
DISTRICT FIGURES.									
Total of 6 years—1808-69 to 1873-74	716	13,157	1,59,873	•-			842	24,583	1,70,263
Total of 4 years—1974-75 to 1877-78	278	4,343	69,936	98	1,103	25,259	517	8,251	1,09,602
1978-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82	107 299 48 130	1,304 2,844 748 1,688	24,948 59,804 15,872 48,592	16 26 28 110	173 245 582 1,557	5,898 7,536 9,732 24,084	205 156 49 299	3,301 2,556 790 4,404	55,000 30,389 12,599 63,650
TAHSIL TOTALS FOR 5 YFARS— 1877-78 TO 1881-82. Jhang Chimot Shorkot	312 123 232	2,854 2,445 2,200	79,751 21,883 61,866	99 59 53	1,154 874 870	28,556 10,921 15,500	491 226 171	4,504 5,010 3,023	91,977 38,612 66,704
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	MORTGA	CES OF I.	AND Co.t-		REDEN	IPTIONS OF	Mortgac	ED LAND	
YEAR.	No	ı-Agrıcal		A	gricultur	usts.	No	n-Agricu	lturists.
	No. of cases.	Area of land in acres.	Mortgage money.	No of cases.	Area of land in acres.	Mortgage money.	No. of cases.	Area of land in acres.	
DISTRICT FIGURES. Total of 6 year:—1868-69 to 1873-74									
Total of 4 years—1874-75 to 1877-78	232	4,966	63,163	98	1,199	12,152	105	1,726	8,082
1878-79 . 1879-80 . 1880-81 . 1881-82 .	37 242 23 120	756 3,014 186 1,449	10,824 58,349 5,578 27,195	20 14 15 106	262 394 396 1,520	2,215 1,594	11 21	62 168 	1,280 2,975
TAHSIL TOTALS FOR 7 YEARS— 1877-78 TO 1881-82. Jhang Chiniot Shorkot		6,446		74 20 73	346	2,277		313	5,839

Note.—Those figures are taken from Tables Nos XXXV and XXXV B of the Revenue Report. No details for transfers by agriculturists and others, and no figures for redemption, are available before 1874-75. The figures for earlier years include all sales and mortgages.

Table No. XXXIII, showing SALE of STAMPS and REGISTRATION of DEEDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	INCO	ME FR	M SALI	OF	OPE	ERATION	S OF T	HE REG	ISTRATIO	N DE	PARTMI	ENT,
	Receiptsi	n rupees	Net em		No	of decide	registere	d.	Value		perty affe upees.	cted,
YEAR.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Touching im- movable pro- perty.	Touching movable pro- porty.	Money obluga- tions.	Total of all kinds.	Immovable property.	Movable pro- porty	Money obliga- tions.	Total value of all kinds.
1877-78 1878-79 1878-80 1880-81 1881-82	55,359 36,130 42,074 35,117 40,251	9,952 11,814 14,559 16,939 15,780	34,854 32,059 37,643 33,688 35,668	9,572 11,265 19,858 16,181 15,092	622 638 750 1,066 898	103 56 2 8 15	32 34 31 34 23	757 728 852 1,232 1,075	2,29,544 1,87,436 2,34,119 3,45 169 3,28,708	3,986 2,920 180 1,900 5,009	18,261 17,111 12,403 18,095 12,241	2,51,791 2,07,467 2,49,524 3,65,324 3,45,958

Note. -These figures are taken from Appendix A of the Stamp and Tables Nos. II and III of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIIIA, showing REGISTRATION.

1				2	3	4	5	6	7
					Nu	mber of B e	eds register	red.	
					1880-81.			1881-82.	
		, ,		Compal- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul-	Optional.	Total.
Registrar Jhang Sub-Registrar Jhang		••		7 558	167	9 725	6 4 39	152	59
Chiniot Shorkot	<i>:</i>		•	107 215	93 83	200 298	148 207	57 66	20 27
Tot	al of dis	strict		887	345	1,232	800	1,0	

Nore.-These figures are taken from Table No. I of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIV, showing LICENSE TAX COLLECTIONS.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	s	9	10	, 11	12	13	14	15
,			Numbi	ER OF	Licens	rs GRA	NTED I	N EAC	t CLAS	S AND (GRADE.		Total		Number
YEAR.			Clos	ss I .			Clas	∗ II.		<i>c</i>	Siess II.		number of licenses.	amount	of villages in which licenses
		1 Rs. 500	Rs. 200	Rs. 150	Rs. 100	1 Rs. 75	Rs. 50	Rs. 2	Rs. 10	1 Rs. 5	2 Rs. 2	Re. 1	licenses.		granted.
1878-79 1870-80 1880-81 1881-82 Tahsil details 1881-82— Jhang Chiniot Shorkot	for		The state of the s		9 8 9 9	4 7 14 14 6 2 6	22 27 27 27 39 10 16	118 116 201 220 81 54 85		1,050	3.041 2,922	8,558 7,948	13,214 12,510 1,223 1,327 634 057 336	29.260 28,852 18,445 19.850 9.005 5,000 5,755	293 293 293 104 118 71

Table No. XXXV, showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7 8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
]	FERMEN	TED LI	QUORS		OTZI	XICAT	ing d	RUGS.	•	EZCI	SE REV	ENUE
YEAR.	No. of retail Consumption of No. of retail Consumption in moun gallons. Leantes.						vnds.	Fèr-					
	Numbe central tilleries.	Country spirits.	Furo- pean hquars.	Rum,	Country spirits.	Opnum.	Ориш.	Charas.	Bh.mg.	Other drugs.	mented liquors.		Total.
1877-78 1878-79 1870-80 1889-51 1881-32	2 2 2 2 2	22 20 18 20 24	3 3 4 6	39 36 36 56 (50 (955 766 670 1,105 955	32 32 82 32 53 32 53 32 82 52 32 52	71 85 9 81 71	13 1 1 1 1	22 25 70 40 41	35 43	2,104 2,664 2,893 3,230 3,130	4.268 3,000 3 010 2,726 2,818	6,372 5,664 5,912 6,006 5,968
Total Average .	10 2	104 21	20	217 43	4,751 950	169 169 32 32	41 S	4	201 40	78 16	11,091 2,818	15,831 3,166	29,922 5,984

Norg. -These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VIII, IX, X, of the Excise Report.

Table No. XXXVI, showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

- 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Annue	il income in	rupecs.			Annvat es	penditure i	in rupics.		
YEAR.	Provincial rates.	Miscellane.	Total in- come.	Ketablish- ment.	District post, and arboricul- ture.	Education.	Modical.	Miscellano-	Public Works.	Total ex- penditure.
1874-75 1875-76 1876-77 1877-78 1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82	33,561 23,030 40,033	615 336 732	31.553 27,031 28,773 23,676 23,114 34,176 39,316 40,766	1,500 1,525 1,393 2,000 2,106 2,100 2,119 2,120	4.129 4.558 4,775 3,652 3,120 3.074 4.592 4,513	6,731 6,388 6,671 6,136 6,950 7,155 7,032 6,876	1,889 2,870 3,072 2,722 2,722 5,105 2,102 2,093	1,766 1,076 500 600 1,411 1,480 1,504 1,463	9,971 10,105 12,059 7,637 6,522 5,622 6.057 6,676	25,836 26,226 28,770 22,797 22,834 22,536 23,225 23,746

Note.—These figures are taken from Appendices A and B to the Annual Review of District Fund operations.

Table No. XXXVII, showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS.

1		2	3		4	5	6	7	s	9-	10	11	12	13	1#	15.	16	17	18	19	20	21
	_		н	GH	sc	по)LS			MI	DDLI	scin	OOLS			P	RIM	ARY	SCI	iools.		
			En	GLI	sa.			BNA- LAR.	_	En	GLISH	•	VERN	ACULAR		Ens	лэн.			Vernact	T.AR.	
YEAR.			ern ent.	-	Ard	ed.		ern-		ert.	¦ A	aled.	Gove	rnment.		era- ent.	Ai	ded.	Gov	crament.	Ai	leđ.
		Schools.	Scholars.		Schools.	Scholars,	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
									· 	FIG	URE:	s FOR	воч	ŝ.				·				
1877-79 1878-79 1879-60 1890-81 1881-62		1 1 1 1	16 16 19 24	1				:	1 1 3 3 3	121 11. 15 16; 16; 12;			5 4 2 3 2	791 683 31 44 40		553 521 580			23 24 26 23 26	1,031 1,026 1,232 1,208 1,244	2 3	130
										FIG	URE	FOR	GIRI	LS.								
1877-78 1878-70 1879-90 1880-81 1881-82			1	- 1					 	-									10 8 8 8 8	297 272 251 235 263		

N. R.—Since 18°0-80, in the case of both Government and Aided Schools, those scholars only who have completed the Middle School course are shown in the returns as attending High Schools, and those only who have completed the Primary School course are shown as attending Mildle Schools. Previous to that year, knys attending to typer Primary Department were included in the returns of Middle Schools in the case of Institutions under the framediate control of the Education Department, whilst in Institutions under District Officers, boys attending both the Upper and Lower Primary Departments were included in Middle Schools. In the case of Aided Institutions, a High School included the Middle and Primary Departments attached to it; and a Middle School, the Primary Department. Before 1870-80, Pranches of Government Schools, if supported on the grant-in-aid system, were classed as Aided Schools; in the return for 1870-80 and a sheepinary pury they have been aboven as Government Schools. Branches of English Schools, thence the returns before 1870-80 do not afford the means of making a satisfactory comparison with the statistics of subsequent years.

Indigenous Schools and Jail Schools are not included in these returns.

Table No. XXXVIII, showing the working of DISPENSARIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
	Dis.						NUMBE	R OF P	ATIENT	S TRE	TED.					
Name of Dispensary.	of iary			Men.					Women				C	hildren		
Disposition y	Class	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Jhang	С. Н.		8,146	7,103	9,844	9,562		1,801	2,531	2,567	2,631		2,905	1,888	2,040	2,468
Do. branch	3rd		4,679	4,001	6,120	6,612		1,609	1,365	1,761	2,022		1,752	1,455	1,589	1,875
Shorkot	2nd		5,162	4,782	5,696	6,515		1,921	2,541	1,887	2,287		1,243	1,781	1,660	1,523
Chiniot	1st		6,867	5,109	6,122	6.870		3,662	2,760	2,589	2,906		2,212	1,949	1,928	1,987
Ahmadpur	2nd		6,224	3,616	4,896	5,116		3,080	1,307	1,401	2,220		2,735	2,461	1,689	1,803
Kot Isa Shah	2nd		3,496	3,903	5,279	5,152	··-	2,781	3,153	3,417	3,702		2,797	2,691	2,784	2,554
Total		••	34,074	28,519	37,957	39,827		14,854	13,657	13,622	15,768		12,744	12,225	11,696	12,210
		18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
Name of	Class of Dispen.		Tot	al Pat	ients.			In-de	or Pat	unts.	•	i	Expendi	ture in	Rupe	8.
Dispensary.	Class Dass	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1850.	1881.
Jhang	С. Н.		11,952	11,522	14,451	14,661		562	341	498	478		3,299	3,781	3,214	2,452
Do. branch	3rd		8,040	6,821	9,470	16,500							1,032	1,243	794	599
Shorkot	2nd		8,326	9,104	9,240	10,325				144	287		1,134	1,242	1,354	1,345
Chiniot	1st		12,241	9,818	10,629	11,763		35.3	194	214	231		2,246	2,248	2,371	2,650
Ahmadpur	2nd		12,039	7,334	7,986	9,169				36	193		761	749	1,071	1,196
Kot Isa Shah	2nd	İ	9,974	9.752	11,480	11,40s				96	165		684	625	805	774
Total			61,672	54,401	63,175	67, 835		915	535	938	1,359		9,155	9,988	9,608	9,016

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. II, IV, and V of the Dispensary Report.

Table No. XXXIX, showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

nd total.		rupees of Suits	concerning *	Number of
le, Total.	d. Land.	Other	1 +	
		matters.	Total.	Revenue cases.
52 5,71		1,80 490	1,89,490	5,042
55 5,82	824 14,747	7 1,70,276	1,85,023	5,955
75 6,47	471 45,724	1,71,380	2,17,104	8,135
31 5,49	499 35,972	2 1,66,919	2,02,891	6,849
	840 31,300	0 1,74,838	2,05,647	6,578
	1 '	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	3,000

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. VI and VII of the Civil Report from 1878 to 1880, and Nos. II and III of the Reports on Civil Justice for 1801 and 1881. Suits heard in Settlement courts are excluded from these columns, no details of the value of the property being available.

Table No. XL, showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	DETAILS.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
Persons tried.	Brought to trial Discharged Acquitted Convicted Committed or referred	. 616 401 859	2.159 917 340 942 4	1,915 792 225 898 18	2,417 898 113 1,343 14	2,543 845 114 1,493 25
Cages dis- posed of.	Summons cases (regular) (summary) Warrant cases (regular) (summary) (summary) Total cases disposed of		1,089		522 670 5 1,197	477 658 2 1,137
need to	Death Transportation for life for a term Penal servitude	1 1	1 1	2 3		3 1 3
Number of persons senteneed to	Fine under Rs. 10	. 5	457 195 5 4	525 187 15 2	421 337 88 46	723 319 18 1
nber of p	Imprisonment under 6 months ,, 6 months to 2 years ,, over 2 years Whipping	. 99	4 to 102 8 94	401 115 14 93	557 93 7 53	460 154 4 62
Nur	Find surcties of the peace Recognisance to keep the peace Give surcties for good behaviour	2	35	13 23	··· 4 248	 27 226

Nore —These figures are taken from Statements Nos. III and IN of the Criminal Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. IV and V of the Criminal Reports for 1881 and 1882.

Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

1	2	3	4	- 5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	6٠
	Nan	iber of	cases in	quired	into.	Nan	1 1.1. of	persona enimore		ted or	Nan	uber of	person	convi	ted.
Nature of offence.	1877	1878	1879	1980	1851	1877	1878	1879	1850	1881	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881
Rioting or unlawful assembly Murder and attempts	5	4	1	1	18	38	27	23	19	158	36	12	18	17	114
to murder .	2	6	3	7	1	6	12	4	9	3	1	5	2	3	3
Total serious offences against the person Abduction of married	23	27	30	47	28	47	58	66	102	60	23	15	9 7	28	35
women Total serious offences	٠.												į		
against property Total minor offences	158	242	216	229	162	100	160	232	150	104	78	111	144	122	116
against the person Cattle theft Total minor offences	9 200	324	309	21 356	37 203	18 180	257	13 293	34 294	60 250	$\frac{8}{146}$	22 172	11 200	18 217	42 191
against property .	419	623	670	645	626	420	518	696	623	653	310	337	460	420	445
Total cognizable of- fences	617	914	960	947	897	426	810	1,036	964	1,103	461	503	674	608	760
Rioting, unlawful as- sembly, affray Offences relating to							!					ļ .			
marriage	12	1	3	2	20	g.	1	7	. 2	28	2	1	1	1	10
Total non-cognizable offences	61	40	37	42	104	83	30	51	57	130	32	29	30	30	76
GRAND TOTAL of of- fences	1,596	2,102	2,265	2,207	2,161	1 327	1,903	2 421	2,284	2 615	1 102	1,207	1,577	1,466	1,702

Note —These figures are taken from Statement Λ of the Police Report.

iK,

Table No. XLII, showing CONVICTS in GAOL.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	No. in g beginning yea.	of the	No imp	risoned he year.	Religno	n of co	ıvıctı.	Previ	ous occ	upation	of ma	le con	icts.
YEAR.	Malcs.	Fernales.	Males.	Fomales.	Минарт.	Hindu.	Buddhist and Jum.	Official.	Professional.	Service.	Agricultural.	Commercial.	Industrial.
1877-78	201 156 225 245 292	4 3 5 3 4	446 424 544 518 676	5 11 7 13 17	588 540 223 255 206	37 25 7 11 13		4 2 2 2 1	 1 4 5	1 :: ::	506 454 204 200 128	 7 8 3	
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		26
	1												
		Lenge	th of sente	ence of co	nvicts.			P c	revious onvicted	ly l.	Pecur	niary	result s.
YEAR.	Under 6 months.	6 months to 1 year.	1 year to 2 years.	2 years to 5 years.	5 years to 10 years.	Over 10 years and transportation.	Death.	Once.	Twice.	More than twice.	Cost of main-		Profits of convict labour.

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XXVIII, XXIX, XXX, XXXI, and XXXVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLIII, showing the POPULATION of TOWNS.

-	1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
•	Tahsil.	 Town.		Total popula- tion.	Hindus.	Sikhs.	Jains.	Musalmans.	Other religions.	No. of occupied houses.	Persons per 100 occupied houses.
-											
J	hang	Maghiana		12,574	5,917	352	! i	6,305		1,684	747
		Jhang		9,055	4,270	143		4,636	6	1,026	882
. 0	hiniot	Chiniot		10,731	8,475	113		7,143	••	1,088	986
8	horkot	Shorkot		2,283	1,167	12		1,104		865	625
		Ahmadpur	-	2,338	1,433	, 29	1	876		432	541
					<u> </u>						

Table No. XLIV, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

1		2	· 3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
TOWN.		Sex.	Total population 5/th Census 9:	Tota		s regist the year		ring	Total o	leath s reg	istered di	iring the	year.
1041.		DCA.	1875.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Maghiana	{	Males Females	7,719 5,833	212 196	211 205	198 155	279 238	253 285	188 137	275 237	209 165	129 152	158 145
Jhang	{	Males Females	4,634 3,975	98 103	124 103	100 84	163 142	169 177	96 96	97 99	169 151	96 85	86 110
Chiniot	{	Males Females	6,250 5,740	227 245	227 229	139 195	2.7	231 219	143 164	138 182	154 172	142 157	135 151

Note-These figures are taken from Table No. LVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLV, showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

	1				2	3	4	5
N	ame of Mun	UCIFALI	τ Υ .		Jhang and Maghiana.	Chiniot,	Shorkot.	Ahmadpur.
Class of Mu	ınicipality	••			11.	III.	m.	III.
1870-71	••	.,	••	• •	10,896	2,749		
1871-72	••				21,065	4,140		
1872-73	••			• -	22,182	4,811		
1873-74					20,879	5,020	,,	
1874-75	••		••	•.	26,353	5,774	1,084	995
1875-76	••		••		24,821	8,859	1,108	762
1876-77	••		••	• •	23,590	5,539	1,513	880
1877-78	••	••	••		^{23,911}	5,524	1,293	788
1878-79		••	••		23,981	5,546	1,264	1,049
1879-80	••	••	••	••	28,146	6,132	1,587	1,015
1880-81		••	••		25,00 5	6,720	1,212	1,032
1881-52	••	••	••		26,594	6,588	1,335	1,000
			•					

	-			Tak	Table No. XLVI, showing DISTANCES.	XLVI	show	ing DI	STAN	OES.	-	-		
											ŀ			
Jhang	(E		Thang.											
Bhoána ,	:	:	58	Bhoána.	_									
Chiniot	÷	:	55	24	Chiniot.									
Lálián	:	:	-:- -:-		14	Lálián,								
Irimmu	;	:		40	75	99	Trimmu,							
Cháh Bharevi		:	30	58	83	98	18	Cháh Bhareri.	arer i .					
Bhamb	Ŧ		50	24	48	41	28	46	Bhamb.					
Kot Isá Sháh		:	29	33	22	20	37	55	6	Kot Isa Shah,	shah.			
Toba Tek Singh	ąs	:		51	75	79	54	42	43	55	Toba Te	Toba Tek Singh,		
Haveli Bahadár Shah	ár Sháh			45	69	88	ø,	27	37	46	81	Haveli E	Haveli Bahádar Sháh,	há h.
Shorkot		i I		629	98	8	202	44	55	19	56	17	Shorkot.	
Almadpur		:	26	78	108	112	4	#	22	18	48	39	22	Ahmadpur,



